

# The Nation.

NEW YORK, THURSDAY, AUGUST 10, 1882.

## The Week.

CONGRESS had nothing to do with the motives that may have prompted President Arthur to veto the River and Harbor Bill. The veto was called for by the public interest, and was a patriotic and meritorious act in itself. The reasons upon which it was based were unanswerable. The President showed conclusively that some of the appropriations went beyond the constitutional powers of Congress, and that many involved a reckless waste of money. No appropriation bill ever was more wanton in its lavishness. No veto message ever was clearer and more irrefutable in point of argument. None has ever appealed more directly to the constitutional conscience as well as to the moral sense of members of Congress. In the face of all this, both Houses voted down the veto by majorities exceeding the required two-thirds. Democratic papers say that the Republicans have a majority in Congress, and are therefore responsible for all that is done. Republican papers say that the Democrats furnished the votes that made the two-thirds possible, and that many of the most extravagant and objectionable appropriations in the bill were moved and put in by Democrats. It is high time for the taxpayer who has to foot the bills, and the good citizen who does not want this Government to become a mere machinery of plunder and a sink of corruption, to look at this thing carefully and impartially.

Among those who voted to pass the River and Harbor Bill over the President's veto there were in the House of Representatives sixty-five Republicans, fifty-one Democrats, two Independent Democrats, and four Greenbackers. Of those who sustained the veto in the House, thirty were Republicans, twenty-four Democrats, and one a Republican Greenbacker. In the Senate there were eighteen Republicans and twenty-three Democrats against the veto, and twelve Republicans, three Democrats, and one Independent in favor of sustaining it, and saving the public money. In both Houses there was much lively and skilful "pairing" between Republicans and Democrats, all calculated to help the opponents of the veto. It appears, therefore, that as to this vote, by which eighteen millions are taken out of the Treasury, about six of which can be usefully expended, while the rest may be classed as a profligate waste of public money, the honors between the two parties are perfectly easy. Democrats and Republicans will lustily abuse one another when the question is which party shall have the offices. They fight one another tooth and nail on the stump and at the polls. But when it comes to draining the Treasury, a large majority of the chosen men of one party will harmoniously cooperate with a majority of the other like a band of brothers. They fight for the first seats at the table and embrace in the gutter.

It would not be surprising if an outside observer should make a mistake in a comparative estimate of the amounts of the various appropriation bills, considering the procrastination, slovenliness, and final haste which mark the passage of these measures. But when two members of Congress differ nearly \$30,000,000 in their statement of the total, one or the other is convicted of gross ignorance of a subject with which he ought to be familiar. On Saturday Senator Allison, of Iowa, said the sum appropriated this year was \$294,243,097 36, an increase over last year of \$77,500,000. Representative Hiscock of New York said on the same day that the total was \$265,469,000, and the increase \$48,297,000. Here is a disagreement, in precise figures, of \$29,203,000 as to the annual growth of Congressional extravagance. Either comparison is sufficiently shameful, but when members do not know even how much money is wasted, the waste is partly explained by the incapacity or negligence of those whose duty it is to prevent it. There is a like variance as to details—Mr. Allison putting the increased payments for pensions at \$47,719,693, and Mr. Hiscock at \$34,000,000—a difference of \$13,719,693. The disagreement as to the total may be accounted for in part by the fact that Mr. Hiscock included in his estimate only the regular appropriation bills, while Mr. Allison added the amount, more than \$24,000,000, embraced in other bills authorizing expenditure of money—as it was entirely proper for him to do in a financial comparison, because, whatever the bill may be called, the draft upon the Treasury is the same. But even upon this theory there is still a difference of \$4,634,225 70—Mr. Allison making the total of the regular bills \$270,103,225 70, and Mr. Hiscock making it \$265,469,000. As to pensions, while nobody has been able to tell precisely what expenditure the reckless Arrearages Act will in the end involve, it ought to be easy to ascertain what sums are appropriated under it from year to year. Yet the Iowa Senator and the New York Representative are nearly fourteen millions apart. Another member, Representative Atkins, of Tennessee, agreed with neither of the others, but said that the total excess for the year was \$78,247,000.

Mr. D. B. Henderson, Secretary of the Republican Congressional Committee, denies indignantly that women in the Federal service have been subjected to political assessments. "Nowhere in the United States," he says, "has any woman or child been asked to contribute." Mr. Henderson's warmth in this matter is rather surprising. Upon Assessor Hubbell's theory—that the officeholders who secured their offices through the supremacy of the Republican party ought to pay a part of their salary to maintain that supremacy—why should not a woman or a child who has an office pay for it as well as a man? But Mr. Henderson is making a distinction without a perceptible difference. The Hubbell assessment really falls upon those whose means of support are diminished by it.

If a clerk with a small salary and a large family is required to give two per cent. of his pay to the Congressional Committee, his wife and children certainly do contribute in a substantial way.

The *Times*, it seems, was wrong in saying that "A. Thomas," to whom Mr. Folger wrote so thoughtfully on the subject of "voluntary" assessments, was a myth. It appears from the Congressional Directory that Alfred Thomas, of the Miscellaneous Division in the Second Comptroller's Office, is the person who was longing so earnestly to contribute to Mr. Hubbell's fund, and inquired of the Secretary whether he might do it safely. This lends a human interest to the correspondence which it would otherwise lack. What a relief it must have been to Alfred and his fellow clerks, and what joy must have spread throughout the Miscellaneous Division when the news came that they might after all contribute!

The meeting of the National Civil-Service Reform League, which took place on Wednesday at Newport, listened to a very eloquent and pointed address from Mr. George W. Curtis, and adopted some resolutions which, if vigorously acted upon, will exercise an important influence on the elections in several Congressional districts. Mr. Curtis pointed out that while the President had given the subject of civil-service reform at least a respectful discussion in his message, and "urgently" asked for the appropriation of \$25,000 for a Civil-Service Commission, and while a committee of the Senate had instituted some serious and valuable inquiries into the comparative workings of the old and the reformed systems, and favorably reported to the Senate two bills embodying schemes of practical reform, the House of Representatives treated the matter with the most demonstrative contempt, at first refusing even to pass the appropriation asked for by the President, and finally passing it only at a reduced figure, amid jeers and jibes. From the whole attitude of the House it is evident that, as long as that body is composed of the same elements as now, no practical measure of legislation in any important degree changing our civil-service system is to be hoped for. It was in view of this fact, as well as of the general recklessness which of late has developed itself again in the use of the patronage, the conduct of our legislators, and the management of the party machinery, that the meeting thought it timely to recommend to the civil-service reform associations in the different parts of the country a more active participation in political movements than they have hitherto ventured upon. They are asked in the first place to interrogate the candidates for Congress nominated by the political parties about their views and conceptions of duty concerning definite measures of legislation necessary for the reform of the civil service, and then to urge the friends of the cause to vote only for such candidates as give satisfactory guarantees in that respect.

And in case the candidate of neither party gives such satisfactory guarantee, then the friends of civil-service reform are called upon, wherever practicable, to put in the field candidates of their own.

The hard-headed men of Maine will scarcely accept as conclusive Mr. Blaine's hasty treatment of the shipping question in his campaign letter published lately. He says that those who favor the admission of "foreign-built ships to American registry" desire to "break down what they call the odious monopoly of the coasting-trade." The friends of free ships do not propose to interfere with the coasting trade at all. Every measure introduced into Congress to enable Americans to buy vessels where they are cheapest, in order to compete for a share of foreign traffic, has contained a provision that the European-built vessels shall not be used in the coasting-trade. This is not the first time that Mr. Blaine has seemed to forget that the people of his State read the newspapers. While he assumes that such a measure would be injurious to the wooden ship-building of Maine, he does not say that the builders of that State are not perfectly able, as we believe they are, to compete with those of any country in constructing vessels of that kind, and therefore need no protection. He mentions the gratifying fact that by the end of 1882 they will have launched "as large a number of wooden sailing ships" as they ever did in a single year, but he does not add, what ought to occur to the builders, that but for the high tariff, which he holds to be an indispensable condition of prosperity, many of the materials which are used in a ship would be so much cheaper that the profits of the yards would be greatly increased. Mr. Blaine admits that the carrying-trade has been largely transferred to iron steamships, but he does not go on to say that owing to our inability to build these vessels as cheaply as they are built in Europe, and the absolute prohibition of their purchase there, we do not have them at all, and our share of the foreign carrying-trade has consequently shrunk from 75.5 per cent. in 1855 to 16.2 per cent. in 1881. It will be surprising if the men of Maine and other States do not finish for themselves Mr. Blaine's incomplete story.

Mr. Blaine, aside from instructing his constituents on the tariff, wants the American people to take the following view of coming political campaigns: "Personal discussion of candidates, in the presence of really important issues, sinks below the notice of the intelligent voter." Mr. Blaine was never more mistaken in his life. We have no doubt that he himself, as a matter of personal convenience, would like the intelligent voter to abstain from examining the character and record and general fitness of candidates. But never within the memory of this generation has the intelligent voter seen more reason and been more inclined to scrutinize the personality of the candidate closely. And the more intelligent the voter is, the more keenly and searchingly he will look at his man. If Mr. Blaine

wants to satisfy himself of this, let him, for instance, run for the Presidency himself.

The Tariff Commission on Wednesday gave audience to a manufacturer of bicycles, who complained that by reason of the duty on steel he was put at a disadvantage amounting to \$13 50 on each bicycle in competition with the pauper bicycle of Europe. It was suggested to him by the representative of the iron and steel interest on the Commission that an increase of the duty on bicycles would fit his case. He replied that it was not the home market which he had in view—American manufacturers controlled the American trade now—but he wished to have a fair chance to sell in foreign markets. Brazil, for instance, imported bicycles largely, and American makers could sell in that market as cheaply as English if they could get their raw materials on the same terms. If there is any "infant industry" in the United States, it must be the bicycle industry. If there is any which needs protection, it must be that. Yet it appears that the only thing it asks of the Government is to be let alone and permitted to make its own way, being neither helped nor hindered by the tariff. This was a very unreasonable position for an infant to take, and we do not wonder, therefore, that the suggestion was made to the bicycle manufacturer that his proper course was to insist on "drawbacks"—that is, to demand \$13 50 cash from the Treasury for every bicycle exported. The poor man thought that such a step would be attended with embarrassment and uncertainty. And here, as the French say, "the incident terminated." The Tariff Commission, on the whole, is shedding considerable light on a dark subject. We trust it will go on in a spirit of frankness, and elicit as many facts as possible. The public will be able to draw their own conclusions from them.

One of the questions with which the Tariff Commission should be prepared to grapple is this: Is hay a "manufactured" or "unmanufactured" article? The natural answer would be that it is unmanufactured. To be sure it is "cured," but only by lying in the sun, just as corn ripens by standing there. If hay is not an unmanufactured article, neither is wheat. The United States Circuit Court in New York gave this rather obvious answer to the question, but it does not satisfy Senators Frye and Hale, of Maine. A very fine crop has been gathered in that State, but that of New Brunswick is also "equal to any ever grown in the Province." The New Brunswickers will as usual have more hay than they want, and will send some to the United States and so compete in the market with the haymakers of Maine. The duty on hay was twenty per cent. ad valorem until last March, when the Court decided that it could be entered at ten per cent. as an "unmanufactured" article. The Senators regard this as clearly wrong, and appeal from the Circuit Judge to the Tariff Commission. They do not specify the peculiarities of hay which distinguish it as a "manufactured" article, but they do say that one of the duties of the Commission is "the correction of such errors as this," and they predict the certain

restoration of the twenty per cent. duty at the next session of Congress. The bill for the relief of the Maine haymakers ought to be preceded by a preamble briefly showing how hay is "manufactured."

The Star-route defence came to a sudden end on Monday, the defendants' lawyers announcing that they had no more testimony to put in. Whether the jury will find any of them guilty or not, it is of course impossible to tell; but the failure of Brady to take the stand is, morally, a confession of guilt on his part. After Walsh had testified to Brady's admission that he levied a regular tax on all the contractors, it would have been out of the question for an honest man to avoid taking the stand to defend his reputation. Brady's silence is the same thing as saying that he dares not expose himself to cross-examination. At the beginning of the trial his eagerness to vindicate his reputation was very marked. Now that his opportunity has come, he is as dumb as an oyster; which is exactly what might have been expected.

The great Tilden income-tax case seems to be at length in a fair way of being brought to an end. The suit was begun against Mr. Tilden while he was running as a candidate for the Presidency, and it has therefore been going on for some six years. His counsel have delayed it whenever they had any opportunity, and when they have not done so, the Government has, until the suit has become a puzzle to most people. Mr. Edwards Pierrepont, special counsel for the Government, seems to have come to the conclusion that the Government has no case, and the Secretary of the Treasury and the Attorney-General have agreed upon the following as the rule of conduct appropriate to the occasion (it appears in a letter on the subject, written last May by Mr. Folger to the Commissioner of Internal Revenue): "It is due to the citizen that he be brought to trial, or that he be freed from the expectation of it, and if there is not enough in the facts to refuse him the latter, it does not seem to me just or worthy of the Government that it exact or take from him a price for the privilege." In other words, if the Government has no case, it should not insist on the payment of costs by the defendant as the price of its being discontinued. The counsel for the Government here has been instructed to act in accordance with that principle. But six years really seems a long period to have been occupied in arriving at this conclusion.

The appointment of Mr. W. W. Astor to be Minister at Rome, in place of the late George P. Marsh, is from any point of view an unfortunate one. Mr. Marsh was a man of great distinction as a scholar and had long diplomatic experience. Mr. Astor is a young man whose experience is not more than sufficient to qualify him for the position of attaché or, at best, secretary on a foreign mission. He has no distinction except that of being a member of a very rich family, and in politics he is chiefly known as having so dissatisfied the voters of his district by his obedience to "Machine" rule that his running for Con-



gress resulted in the election of a Democrat. What makes the matter worse is that this is the reason why he is appointed; it is a "Machine" appointment, to reward him for defying public opinion in the interests of the "Machine."

The call for a State Convention issued by the Republican Committee on Wednesday is of the stereotyped form. "The Republicans of the State of New York are requested to send delegates" to Saratoga on the 20th of September. There is no broad or precise definition of the class of voters who are summoned. Who, for example, are "the Republicans" in this city to whom the invitation is extended? Are they the comparatively few members of the Assembly District Associations, or all the members of the party who elect the ticket, when it is elected? If the business is managed this year as it has been in other years, nobody will be allowed to vote for delegates to the Convention who is not a member of one of these associations. It is very hard to get into these societies—that is, hard for Republicans who are not the followers of a boss, who profess individual convictions and reserve any right of independent action. It is very easy to get out of the societies. Let a member put himself in opposition to the boss, or even take a critical attitude toward him, let him show any independence whatever, and he will be expelled. It is, therefore, a very difficult matter for Republicans who vote for the party's candidates to get a chance to vote for the delegates who nominate the candidates. For most of them it is impossible, and not more than one in ten is allowed to vote for these delegates. Herein consists the viciousness of the present organization, and, so far as this city is concerned, the State Convention can be described as representative only by an abuse of words. The Committee unanimously and with applause resolved to pay the expenses of the indicted and convicted political assessor, General N. M. Curtis, and the fine imposed upon him.

It was reported before the Indiana Democrats met in State Convention that they were greatly troubled by the "whiskey question." It comes up now, not in the form of a proposed legislative prohibitory measure, but in that of a Constitutional amendment to be submitted to the people. To say that the people could not be trusted to decide this or any other question would be for the Democrats to fly in the face of all their "cherished traditions." At the same time they were reluctant to submit it. The platform adopted on Wednesday tries to extricate the party from its embarrassment by resolving against the amendment, but in favor of submitting it, provided the submission is made "at a time and in circumstances most favorable to a full vote"—that is, at a general election. The treatment of the tariff question was more familiar, though scarcely so successful. The Indiana Democrats demand such a revision of the revenue laws as shall "establish a tariff for revenue" and at the same time "promote the industries of the country." In other words, freetraders and protectionists, such as Senator Voorhees, are invited to unite on common ground in support of "the teachings of Thomas Jeffer-

son," which are put in the forefront of the platform, and in opposition to the rascally Republicans, who are belabored in good round terms for passing the Federal election laws and for "the frauds and perjuries of 1876."

A minute telegraph "war" has broken out in Dayton, Ohio, between the Western Union and the Mutual Union Companies. The Mutual Union has, it seems, a system of electric call bells by which a customer desiring to transmit messages turns a small crank in his place of business, signalling a small boy in the Mutual Union office, who then comes after the message. Sometimes, however, the customer sends messages addressed to a place where the Mutual Union has no office. In such cases the enterprising manager of the company, instead of sending the boy back with a polite message regretting the inability of the company to transmit it, has it forwarded by the Western Union Company, whose office is next door. Thus the Western Union officers say is an immoral and illegal practice, because by means of it the Mutual Union imposes upon its customers the belief that it has offices where it has none, and that it can "handle" business for help in which it actually has to go to the Western Union. They accordingly have refused to receive or transmit any such messages in future. But the laws of Ohio compel all telegraph companies to receive and transmit messages forwarded by other companies, and the Mutual Union has begun suit to enjoin the Western Union from further refusal of despatches. It is difficult in the forum of morals to see how any one is imposed upon by such a practice, as customers must be perfectly wellaware that the Western Union has more offices than the Mutual Union. Indeed, their knowledge of the fact is probably the cause of the popularity of the Mutual Union's call system. The proper redress of the Western Union would seem to be to have a call system of its own.

Two months ago Mr. Keely, the inventor of the celebrated Keely motor, began, by order of court, to reveal to Mr. Boekel the secret of his invention. After seven weeks' constant revelation Mr. Boekel declares that he does not yet understand it, and is inclined to think that "recognized mechanical sciences cannot reach the thing." This must be very disappointing not only to the stockholders, but to Mr. Keely himself, who has announced his intention of taking out a patent. It would obviously be impossible to patent a process or invention which could not be explained or described, for the law requires description for the purpose of identification. Mr. Keely may raise the point that the constitution of Mr. Boekel's mind makes successful revelation to him impossible, and might insist on the appointment of some new person as the depository of the secret. But the probability is that the Keely secret will long remain one of the mysteries of science.

The week in Wall Street has been uneventful. Although the surplus reserve of the New York banks was reduced about one-half (to \$2,684,435), and although \$1,200,000 was

shipped as an "arbitrary transaction," which showed a loss to the shippers, yet the loan market for money remained easy for borrowers, and the call-loan rate did not rule above  $3\frac{1}{2}$  per cent. At the Stock Exchange the upward movement in securities for a time halted and hesitated, active influences having been brought into play to depress prices. Late in the week, however, a fresh start toward higher figures was taken. The developments respecting the crops were not uniformly good during the week, but the conclusion seems inevitable that all the principal crops, excepting corn, will exceed the yield of any previous year. The Egyptian trouble certainly was not narrowed in importance during the week, and the probability of a general European complication has increased. This, after first disturbing all the financial interests centring in London, would, for a time, be a great help to all our markets. General trade is very good for the season, and the prospects for the autumn are excellent. Progress was made during the week toward a settlement of the labor troubles. The freight-handlers in this city very generally returned to work, having failed to secure the advance in wages for which they struck; the iron-workers and mill operatives also gave signs of conceding the claims on account of which they stopped work several months ago.

The one important incident in the progress of the Egyptian difficulty during the week has been the British occupation of Suez, despite the comically frantic opposition of M. de Lesseps. Meantime, troops are arriving from India, and the preservation and free operation of the Canal are practically assured without a "mandate," on the simple principle of *beati possidentes*. The diplomatic incongruities and contrarieties have not diminished. The Conference still amuses itself with sessions, to which the Russian delegate has returned, and with propositions of one sort or another, which are all invalidated by the duplicity of the Porte and the reservations of France and England. No troops have actually been forwarded by the Sultan, nor has he yet proclaimed Arabi a rebel; and both public sentiment and official expression in England show a strong aversion to his doing now what the Conference was called (by England herself) to press him to do. The British Government has distinctly given notice in Parliament that its military lodgments in Egypt, "in virtue of the Khedive's proposal," must not be meddled with by the Conference. Like MacMahon at the Malakoff, it is there, and it means to remain. France, on the other hand, is not there, and has spent the week in endeavoring to form a Cabinet to succeed Freycinet's. M. Duclerc has announced his policy to be simply the country's will, and freedom of action for the country. As the country has no will, except to wait, he will have plenty of leisure to read, in the August *Contemporary Review*, Prof. Sheldon Amos's views of "reconstruction" after Arabi has been suppressed. This writer abolishes the Dual Control, and introduces a single "supervising power, acting through its ordinary diplomatic representative, who will in all respects exercise the peculiar powers entrusted to a British Resident in a native Indian State."

## SUMMARY OF THE WEEK'S NEWS.

[WEDNESDAY, AUGUST 2, TO THURSDAY, AUGUST 8, 1882, inclusive.]

## DOMESTIC.

PRESIDENT ARTHUR's veto of the River and Harbor Bill met with almost unstinted praise from the newspapers of the country of almost every shade of political opinion. Nevertheless, on Wednesday, the House of Representatives promptly took up the bill and passed it over the veto, by a vote of 122 to 59. Of the affirmative voters there were 65 Republicans; of the negative, 28. The Senate, immediately after the reading of the veto, on Wednesday, took another vote, and passed the bill over the veto by 41 to 16. So the bill has become a law. It is thought that the President, in his annual message next December, will recommend that the customary River and Harbor Bill be omitted for 1883.

The session of Congress drew rapidly to a close during the week. In the Senate, numbers of the smaller bills were passed each day, and great progress was made with the large appropriation bills. On Wednesday the Senate passed a bill leasing the Salt Springs in Indian Territory and appropriating the royalty therefrom to the Cherokee school fund; also a bill making some minor changes in the pension regulations. In the evening, the Sundry Civil Appropriation Bill was passed, the total amount being more than \$25,000,000. It contained appropriations for the purchase of the Franklin and Rochambeau papers, and \$15,000 to enable the President to carry out the law to promote the efficiency of the civil service. The clause commits the Government to competitive examinations and a proper distribution of places. On Thursday, the Senate passed a resolution to print 300,000 of the agricultural reports, at an expense of \$219,000. The Internal Revenue Tax Bill was resurrected, and a debate took place on the tobacco tax. After fruitless discussion, the matter went over without action. The House adjournment resolution was laid on the table for future action, and a bill was passed to provide for deductions from the gross tonnage of United States vessels in taxation, in order to put them on a footing with foreign ships. A law was passed extending to foreign vessels the provisions of inspection laws now applicable to domestic vessels. On Friday, the House bill establishing diplomatic relations with Persia was approved.

There was a further fruitless discussion of the Tax Bill in the Senate on Friday, and in executive session an attempt was made, in the interests of the Stalwarts, to reconsider the nomination of a New York postmaster. Senator Miller took occasion to denounce the attitude of his colleague, Senator Lapham, in very severe terms. The motion to reconsider was laid upon the table, only Senators Lapham and Conger opposing. On Saturday, the Naval Bill was passed, the Senate receding from its position in regard to the closing of the Navy-yards for one year only. Discretionary power was given the Secretary of the Navy. The Senate also receded from its position on the mileage question, as a part of the Deficiency Bill, and passed a separate resolution appropriating \$33,000 for the mileage of Senators who attended the Extra Session of 1881. Senator Miller obtained the floor to speak on the Knit-Goods Bill, which raises the duty from fifty-five to eighty-nine per cent. The Democrats were caught napping, and, notwithstanding many efforts to prevent it, the bill went to a vote and was passed, 36 to 15. After midnight, the conference report on the Sundry Civil Bill was adopted. The Senate was again obliged to accept the restrictions of the House. Appropriations for the purchase of the Rochambeau and other historical papers were stricken out. The appropriation for the Signal Service was cut down.

In the House of Representatives on Thursday, a resolution was reported for final adjournment at noon on Saturday. A lively discussion ensued, in which each party tried

to put the blame for lack of reduction of taxes during the session upon the other. The resolution was finally passed without a division. Mr. Hutchins, of New York, on Friday, offered a constitutional amendment that it shall take two-thirds of all the members elected to each House of Congress to pass a bill over the President's veto, instead of two-thirds of the members voting. The Conference Committee on the Naval Bill reported that they had agreed with the Senate on all points but one. Instead of abolishing the office of Commodore, it was agreed that only half of the vacancies in the grades of the Navy shall be filled by promotion, until the number of officers is reduced to a certain point. The report was agreed to, and a further conference ordered. The conference report on the Legislative, Executive, and Judicial Appropriation Bill was presented and agreed to. The Sundry Civil Bill was debated, and of the 247 Senate amendments, only forty-three were agreed to. In all cases where the Senate had increased the amount appropriated there was non-concurrence.

Three remaining appropriation bills were rapidly disposed of on Saturday by the House. The Naval Bill was finally passed as agreed upon by the Conference Committee. The Deficiency Bill was finally disposed of on similar conference recommendations. At 10:30 o'clock, the report of the conferees on the Sundry Civil Bill was agreed to. Among other items, is one appropriating \$25,000 for the transportation to this country of the bodies of Lieutenant De Long and his dead comrades of the *Jeannette*. Among the minor bills disposed of was a bill for the inspection of ocean-going steam-vessels, and one to pay mileage to Lieutenant Schwatka, the Arctic explorer, on account of his trip to the Arctic regions. A resolution for a joint committee of Senators and Representatives to inquire into the needs of the American ship-building industry during the recess was passed.

At the session of the Senate on Monday a number of miscellaneous bills and resolutions were hastily passed, among them the bill pensioning the widow of the late Brigadier-General Ramsey, the bill abolishing the export tax on tobacco, the joint resolution appropriating \$60,000 for fees of United States District Attorneys for the last fiscal year, also the resolution for an investigation as to the loss of the *Jeannette* and the death of Lieutenant De Long, and the resolution for a joint select committee on American ship-building. A concurrent resolution for adjournment *sine die* at 5 o'clock P. M. gave rise to a severe attack upon the dilatoriness of the House in preparing the appropriation bills by Senator Plumb. He placed all the responsibility for the extended session upon them. The resolution was not passed. The Senate went into executive session and confirmed a number of nominations, among them that of John A. Luby to be Surveyor at Albany. It was opposed by Senator Miller. On Tuesday morning the Senate voted to adjourn without day at 3 P. M.—yeas 27, nays 17. The opposition votes were cast by Republicans. After the transaction of unimportant business, and the usual complimentary vote to the presiding officer, Senator Davis, with a few remarks, declared the Senate, at 3 o'clock, adjourned *sine die*.

The House spent part of Monday in finishing the uncompleted session of Saturday, and the rest of the day was occupied in a farcical contest over the Tax Bill, as introduced by Mr. Robeson, for mere party advantage. It adjourned without transacting any business in the evening. On Monday the House met, concurred in the Senate resolution for adjournment at 3 o'clock, and at that hour was adjourned *sine die* by Speaker Keifer.

The bill to regulate the carriage of passengers by sea, known as the Deuster Steamship Bill, has received the approval of the President, and is now a law.

President Arthur sent to the Senate on Thursday the nominations of William Waldorf As-

tor, of New York, to be Minister to Italy, and Major John C. Kinney, to be United States Marshal for Connecticut. The first named is a peculiarly political nomination, Mr. Astor being a Stalwart ex-State Senator who voted steadily for Mr. Conkling's return to the United States Senate. He was, on that account, defeated for Congress in a strong Republican district in this city. Mr. Astor's nomination has been confirmed by the Senate.

Mr. Blaine has written a long letter on the Maine campaign. He thinks that the issues are the sustaining of the Maine judiciary in their decision against the Garcelon fraud, the tariff, and the general prosperity as affected by Republican supremacy.

A number of political conventions were held on Wednesday. The Iowa Republicans nominated J. A. T. Hull for Secretary of State. The platform reaffirms the Republican platform of 1880, approves President Arthur's Administration, asks for an equitable revision of the tariff and legislation to control interstate commerce. The Indiana Democrats nominated W. R. Myers for Secretary of State, Francis T. Hard for Attorney-General, and other State officers. The platform approves Jeffersonian principles, asks for civil-service reform, reduction of taxation and the tariff, and protection for American citizens abroad. The platform of the South Carolina Democrats also favors civil-service reform and a reduction of the tariff. The Ohio Prohibitionists on Thursday nominated Ferdinand Schumacher for Secretary of State, and other State officers.

Two Republican conventions were in session in Atlanta, Ga., for several days last week. Both conventions approved the nomination of General Gartrell, the Independent Democratic candidate for Governor.

On Wednesday, the Republican State Committee of New York met in this city and decided that the convention should be held at Saratoga, on September 20, and that the apportionment of delegates should be the same as last year—496 for the entire State. The Democrats met at Saratoga on Tuesday, and called a convention for Syracuse, Sept. 21.

Speaker Keifer has been nominated for Congress, unanimously, by the Republicans of the Eighth Ohio District.

In the Star-route trial, at Washington, on Wednesday, Mr. A. C. Buell, editor of the *Washington Capital*, testified as to his relations with Brady and Walsh, and the articles he had written on the subject of Star-routes. The testimony on Thursday was unimportant. Henry M. Vaile, one of the defendants, testified on Friday as to the business relations of the contractors.

The Government introduced some rebutting evidence in the Star-route trial on Monday and Tuesday morning. Mr. Bliss then announced that the prosecution had introduced all its testimony except that of Mr. Spencer, who was not in Washington. The Court would not grant a postponement of the hearing until he could be produced. Affidavits and counter-affidavits as to his testimony were filed. After some testimony by the defence in surrebuttal, the case was closed as far as evidence is concerned, and the rest of the afternoon was spent in making arrangements as to the final arguments by counsel.

A meeting of the National Civil-Service Reform Association was held at Newport on Wednesday. It was attended by a large and distinguished body of delegates. An executive session was held in the morning, after which Mr. George William Curtis, President of the Association, delivered an admirable address, in which he arraigned President Arthur for the removal of competent officers. The collection of political assessments was severely denounced. A reference was made to the active civil-service reform agitation in Pennsylvania as a movement which, if not heeded by parties, would yet construct parties. Mr. Carl Schurz, from the Committee on Resolutions,



reported resolutions, which were unanimously adopted, urging the friends of reform in the coming Congressional elections to interrogate the candidates as to their views on the subject, and to vote for the candidate giving most satisfactory assurances of his sincerity in the support of reform; and that if either party candidate fails to give such assurance, the friends of civil-service reform present one, if practicable, whose views are favorably known. The various civil-service reform associations are advised to prosecute offenders against the political assessment law, and the National League to test the legality of the Hubbell circular. The President of the National League is requested to bring Daniel Webster's famous civil-service letter to the attention of the Executive, and request a similar order for the correction of such abuses. A committee of five was appointed to issue an address on the subject of civil-service reform to the voters of the United States. The subject is to be also brought to the attention of clergymen and professors and friends of education.

Before the Tariff Commission, during the week, a number of industries and arts have presented their pleas, some for a reduction of the tariff, others for an increase. The advisability of putting works of art on the free list was presented on Thursday. The jute and gold-leaf industries were represented on Friday.

The steamer *Gold Dust* exploded her boilers on Monday, near Hickman, Ky., killing twenty-four and wounding forty-eight of those on board.

Three thousand men have been thrown out of employment in Chicago by the temporary suspension of work in a pork-packing establishment. The high price of corn has caused little to be fed to hogs, and few good ones are in the market.

There is yellow fever in Matamoras, Mexico, and one case in New Orleans. There are disquieting rumors in Texas, but no authentic case has yet been reported.

Rear Admiral John C. Beaumont, of the United States Navy (retired), died in Newmarket, N. H., on Wednesday, at the age of sixty-one.

Mr. Artemas Hale, of Bridgewater, Mass., the oldest ex-Congressman, died on Friday, at the age of ninety-eight. His Congressional career began in 1845.

Rear Admiral McDougal, of the United States Navy, died at San Francisco on Monday.

Gen. Gouverneur Kemble Warren died at his home, in Newport, R. I., on Tuesday evening, at the age of fifty-two. Since the decision of the Court of Inquiry as to his conduct at the battle of Five Forks he had manifested symptoms of great mental depression, which hastened his death.

## FOREIGN.

A scare occurred among the British troops at Alexandria early Wednesday morning, which was at first greatly exaggerated. It seems that a picket, consisting of six men and a corporal, were sent to take possession of a clump of trees, about the middle of the British outposts, along the Sweet Water Canal. About two o'clock in the morning, fifty mounted Arabs approached, under cover of the embankment of the canal, and attacked the outpost. A number of shots were exchanged, but the picket hastily beat a retreat to the pumping station, 400 yards in the rear. Four companies were sent to support them, but the enemy had already disappeared. It was at first supposed that the picket had acted in a cowardly manner, but it was subsequently announced in the House of Commons that they had obeyed previous orders.

All the British troops were ordered to the front on Thursday morning, in expectation of an attack. An alarm was caused during the day by rumors of an impending massacre at

three o'clock in the afternoon. The police exercised increased vigilance, but no disturbance occurred. The English soldiers at Alexandria are much overworked, and there is a deficiency of officers. Sir Garnet Wolseley, although suffering from Cyprus fever, sailed from England for Egypt on Wednesday. A reconnaissance was made by the British troops on Thursday afternoon to a point five miles beyond the Ramleh outposts. The enemy's position was found to be almost abandoned. A few shots were fired, but there were no casualties. The troops returned at dusk.

There was a small skirmish on Friday morning on the left front of the British lines. The enemy's attack was promptly replied to by part of the Forty-sixth Regiment. There were few casualties. A reconnaissance in force was made on Saturday afternoon, about five o'clock. The Marines, Rifles, and the South Staffordshire Regiment advanced along the canal and the railway, driving the enemy from their outposts. All their available troops were brought into action in front of their principal line of intrenchments at Kafr-el-Dwar. The Egyptian infantry held their ground with considerable steadiness. The armored train, with Nordenfeldt guns, did splendid execution on the Egyptian earthworks. The engagement lasted until sunset, with a heavy loss to the Egyptians. As there was then no sign of an advance by the enemy, the British retired in perfect order. The object of the reconnaissance was to repair the railway track, and to compel the enemy to display what force and what guns they had in front of their main position, and the object was completely attained.

The total loss of the British by the skirmish on Saturday afternoon was four killed and twenty-nine wounded. Among the killed was Lieutenant Vyse, a very promising young officer. The loss of the Egyptians is estimated at more than two hundred. In the opinion of competent military men in Alexandria nothing has been gained by this engagement to compensate for the heavy loss. On Monday another skirmish between armored trains took place at Mahalla Junction. The forty-pounder of the British caused the enemy to withdraw.

Suez has been occupied by British marines, and M. de Lesseps formally protests against it as a violation of neutrality obligations.

On Friday the transport *Catalonia* left England for Egypt with troops. Queen Victoria inspected it at Portsmouth. She wished the officers a prosperous voyage and a speedy return. Sir Evelyn Wood was on board.

The official rebel journal at Cairo has published the decision of the great national meeting held on July 29, which declares for Arabi and denounces the Khedive. Arabi has issued a proclamation that the Sultan has deposed the Khedive. His force is estimated at 70,000 men.

The acting Consul-General of the United States in Egypt telegraphs that the archives of the Consulate are safe at Cairo. It was feared that they had been destroyed.

At Constantinople, the Conference has been making progress during the week. When it met on Wednesday, M. Onou, the Russian representative, was present, but gave no reason for it; however, it is said that reassuring explanations by England were the cause. Lord Dufferin explained England's action at Alexandria to the delegates. He said that the forts had been destroyed as a measure of defence; England's sole object was to re-establish peace and order, secure free navigation of the Suez Canal, and restore the authority of the Khedive. The Ottoman delegates made an extended declaration. They denied inaction on the part of the Porte, asserting that it was ready to send troops under the terms of the identical note; but that England's subordinating her acceptance of cooperation with Turkish troops to the proclamation of Arabi Pasha as a rebel was not in accord with that declaration of the Powers. The Porte hoped

that the Conference would agree to the issuing of the proclamation simultaneously with the presence of Turkish troops in Egypt, and not before they landed, as England demanded. Count Corti, the Italian Ambassador, brought forward proposals of his Government, in regard to the Suez Canal, providing for the concurrence of all the Powers, Turkey included, in a police supervision, of an exclusively naval character, of the Canal, it being reserved to the Powers to decide upon other action should this be insufficient. The representatives of Germany, Austria, Russia, and Turkey immediately signified adhesion to the proposals, but the English and French representatives declared that they must first consult their Governments before coming to a decision.

At the sitting of the Conference on Saturday, Lord Dufferin, the British Ambassador, accepted the principle of collective protection for the Suez Canal. The French Ambassador was forced to reserve his opinion, owing to the political crisis at home. The other delegates accepted collective protection, with the modification that there should only be provisional supervision of the Canal. Lord Dufferin again insisted that Arabi should be proclaimed a rebel, and demanded a written statement of the Porte's adherence to the identical note. At Monday's sitting of the Conference the Turkish delegates accepted the conditions proposed by the Powers in their invitations to the Porte to intervene in Egypt. A protocol was drawn up which was signed by all the members. Said Pasha has promised Lord Dufferin that the Porte will issue a proclamation declaring Arabi a rebel.

The new French Cabinet was officially announced in Paris on Monday as follows: M. Duclerc, President of the Council and Minister of Foreign Affairs; M. Fallières, Minister of the Interior; M. Develle, Under Secretary of the Interior; M. Deves, Minister of Justice; M. Duvaux, Minister of Public Instruction; M. Tirard, Minister of Finance; General Billot, Minister of War; Admiral Jauréguiberry, Minister of Marine; M. Cochery, Minister of Posts and Telegraphs; M. de Mahy, Minister of Agriculture; M. Pierre Legrand, Minister of Commerce and *ad interim* of Public Works. On Tuesday the Premier declared his policy in the Chambers. He accepts the vote of the Chamber of Deputies on the Egyptian credit as determining his foreign policy. The vote of the Chambers will also determine his home policy. Senator Duclerc is seventy years of age, an ex-journalist, and a staunch Republican.

Amid cheers, Mr. Gladstone announced in the House of Commons, on Thursday, that he would not take up the Arrears Bill until Tuesday, as he did not wish to do anything precipitately before arriving at what might be a momentous decision. On Tuesday afternoon Mr. Gladstone, moving the consideration of the amendments of the House of Lords to the Arrears of Rent Bill, said that he should have to ask the House to dissent substantially from the first amendment. The Government will propose to enact that either a landlord or tenant can initiate proceedings subject to ten days' notice. Mr. Gladstone did not ask for a rejection of the second amendment, but to amend it so as to provide that in a case where a tenant's right is sold within seven years, the landlord shall have a lien on the proceeds for the arrears he has been deprived of by the action of the bill to the extent of one year's rent, the landlord only to have this lien if the sum realized by the sale of the tenant-right equals three years' rent. The first amendment was rejected by a vote of 293 to 157, and all of Mr. Gladstone's proposals were agreed to.

A strike is threatened among about 5,000 of the Irish constabulary. They demand increased pay.

A riot occurred in Trieste, Austria, on Wednesday, caused by a petard being thrown into the ranks of the Society of Veterans by members of the Italian faction.

## GOVERNMENT ECONOMY.

THE discreditable fact that the chairmen of the committees on appropriations of the Senate and of the House of Representatives differ to the extent of many millions in their statements of the amounts of money actually appropriated at the late session of Congress, is a sign of the confusion and the random methods which prevail under the present practice of disposing of the public funds. On Monday Senator Plumb made a speech in which the House of Representatives was severely but justly taken to task for its dilatoriness in maturing the appropriation bills. It appears that not one of the important ones reached the Senate until near the close of the fiscal year, and some of them only after its close, so that when the term of the old appropriations expired the Government would have been without funds for its daily needs had not the makeshift of continuing for a limited period last year's allowances been resorted to; and that the Senate had no time for a careful consideration of details before acting on the bills. Now when, in ordinary, quiet times, we see a House of Representatives toil for six months or more over a few appropriation bills to provide for the current needs of the Government, the Senate following in its wake, and then the chairmen of the committees which in the two houses of Congress have this subject in charge, and are obliged carefully to consider and digest it, both being experienced and conscientious gentlemen, differ widely as to the sums of money which have been allowed, and, as the final outcome of it all, a reckless profusion of expenditures which alarms the whole country, every intelligent observer will readily conclude that there must be something very crude and reprehensible in our way of doing these things.

There are certain simple principles which in a well-regulated Government household will never be lost sight of. We are levying taxes for the purpose of raising money to defray the necessary expenses of the Government. This is the object, and should be the only object. We should therefore first know what the necessities of the Government are, and then adjust our system of taxation to those necessities. In this way the Government will be provided with what it needs, and the people will not be burdened with taxation which is not required. Those who make appropriations of money, as well as the people generally, will then never cease to be clearly conscious of the fact that every dollar appropriated has to come from those who pay the taxes, and that every increase of appropriation must necessarily be accompanied by an increase of the taxes to be imposed upon the people. Whenever this system is followed—that is to say, whenever the proper relation between income and outgo, between taxes and expenditures, is properly and constantly observed—there will be reasonable and systematic economy, and if a spell of extravagance ever occurs, it will not last long.

What is our way of doing things? We have been long continuing a system of taxation yielding revenues far beyond our actual needs,

and the result is, that instead of first ascertaining what the necessities of the Government are, and then providing for them by appropriate taxes, we raise an abundance of money by taxation, and then leave it to the inventive genius of Congressmen to discover purposes for which the money may be spent. It does not require the gift of prophecy to foretell the consequences. Even the wisest and most virtuous assemblage of men would, under such circumstances, feel itself subject to a very great temptation; while an assemblage of politicians, mostly elected under the influence of the spoils system, will wish nothing better than to be tempted in order to succumb. We have no reason to be surprised when we read in the newspapers that the principal question asked and considered by such politicians under such circumstances was, how to spend the surplus so that each one might have the greatest possible benefit from it. The loading down of appropriation bills with an endless variety of schemes, and the bewildering confusion created by the general grab game, so that at last nobody knows how much money has been voted away, and the only certain thing is that the amounts are alarming, are the natural result of such a system or want of system.

It is obvious how much in the way of bringing order out of chaos would be accomplished by introducing the practice of having a complete budget of necessary expenditures, and of the taxation required to cover them, prepared by the executive branch of the Government and submitted to Congress at the beginning of each session. What we have now is merely the estimates of the different departments of the amounts of money they want. What is needed is, aside from the grouping together of these amounts, showing the total sum required by the Government for the year, a clear statement of the different kinds of existing taxes, with their yield, and the opinion of the Executive as to what taxes will best subserve the purpose, what taxes may be cut down or abolished, and so on. A clear summing up in a statement of this kind would be sure to attract the attention and to reach the understanding of every intelligent taxpayer. It would be generally assumed that the Executive, having the best information about the actual needs of the Government, would ask for all the money really needed, while the distinct personal responsibility assumed by it in making its demands and statements would keep it within the bounds of proper economy. The Appropriations Committee would find much of their work done before they sat down to it. The proper relation between appropriations and taxes would become much clearer not only to the minds of Congressmen, but to the minds of the people too, and the latter would be likely to exercise a much more intelligent and effective vigilance over the former, and thus keep them from running into wild extravagance beyond the figures of the budget. The necessity of a change of this kind has never appeared more urgent than after the experiences of the present session. It should be seriously considered, and might, if foreign examples are not allowed to be conclusive, at least be tried as an experiment.

## WHAT IS AN "OFFICER"?

THE Attorney-General's recent opinion that the term "officers" used in the Anti-Assessment Act does not include members of Congress, was founded in great measure on the interpretation given to the word by Judge Story in his commentaries on the Constitution. As the decision of Mr. Brewster does not dispose of the question finally, and it is sure to come up again, it is worth while before the matter passes out of the public mind to examine it a little more carefully than the Attorney-General or Mr. Hubbell has been disposed to do.

The Constitution of the United States provides (Art. 2, sec. 4.) that "the President, Vice-President, and all civil officers of the United States," may be removed from office by impeachment. This Mr. Justice Story, in his commentaries, criticises as follows: Sec. 789. "Who are 'civil officers,' within the meaning of this constitutional provision? . . ." "The sense in which the term ['civil'] is used in the Constitution seems to be in contradistinction to *military*, to indicate the rights and duties relating to citizens generally, in contradistinction to those of persons engaged in the land or naval service of the Government. . . ." Sec. 790. "All officers of the United States, therefore, who hold their appointments under the *National Government*, whether their duties are executive or judicial, in the highest or in the lowest departments of the Government, with the exception of officers in the Army and Navy, are properly civil officers within the meaning of the Constitution, and liable to impeachment. . . ." Sec. 791. "A question arose upon an impeachment before the Senate in 1799, whether a Senator was a civil officer of the United States, within the purview of the Constitution, and it was decided by the Senate that he was not; and the like principle must apply to the members of the House of Representatives. . . . The reasoning by which it [the decision] was sustained in the Senate does not appear, their deliberations having been private. But it was *probably* held that 'civil officers of the United States' meant such as derived their appointment from and under the *National Government*, and not those persons who, though members of the Government, derived their appointment from the States, or the people of the States. In this view, the enumeration of the President and Vice-President, as impeachable officers, was indispensable; for they derive, or may derive, their office from a source paramount to the *National Government*." Judge Story then proceeds: "And the clause of the Constitution now under consideration does not even affect to consider them officers of the United States. It says, 'the President, Vice-President, and all civil officers (not all other civil officers) shall be removed,' etc. The language of the clause, therefore, would rather lead to the conclusion that they were enumerated as *contradistinguished* from, rather than included in the description of, *civil officers* of the United States." By this construction it is shown that the President is not a "civil" officer, and as the term "civil" is used in contradistinction to "military" (sec. 789), it follows that he is a *military officer*. This conclusion might have



been further strengthened by a reference to Art. 2, sec. 2, of the Constitution: "The President shall be Commander-in-Chief of the Army and Navy of the United States, and of the Militia of the several States, when called into the actual service of the United States." But having accepted this construction, our gratification in having the question settled is disturbed by the suggestion that this may not be a *final* opinion. We remember that it was implied that the President was not an officer of the United States at all; that the President derived, or might derive, his office from a source paramount to the National Government. But the conclusive proof of this proposition is not given with the same fulness with which Judge Story demonstrates that the President is a military officer of the United States, and we find great difficulty in harmonizing this view with the following clause of the Constitution: Art. 2, sec. 1. "The Executive Power shall be vested in a President of the United States of America. He shall hold his office during the term of four years. . . ."—which clause has always been regarded as creating and establishing the office of President. The result of the discussion seems to leave the meaning of the word officer under the Constitution involved in grave doubt. Yet it is upon this discussion that the Attorney-General founds in great measure his conclusion that it is perfectly plain that members of Congress are not officers within the meaning of the act of August 15, 1876, Chap. 287, sec. 6, and that it is idle to carry the question before the courts. The section is as follows: "That all executive officers or employees of the United States not appointed by the President, with the advice and consent of the Senate, are prohibited from requesting, giving to, or receiving from, any other officer or employee of the Government, any money . . . for political purposes. . . ."

The question raised is as to the meaning of the words "any other officer." The Attorney-General says:

"But it seems that a member of Congress is not an officer of the United States in the constitutional meaning of the term. In the case of Blount, on an impeachment before the Senate in 1799, the question arose whether a Senator was a civil officer of the United States within the purview of the Constitution, and the Senate decided that he was not. This question arose under the fourth section of the second article of the Constitution.

"Other clauses of the Constitution," observes Judge Story in section 753 of his work on the Constitution, "would seem to favor the same result, particularly the clause respecting appointments of officers of the United States by the Executive, who is to commission all the officers of the United States, and the sixth section of the first article, which declares that no person holding any office under the United States shall be a member of either House during his continuance in office, and the first section of the second article, which declares that no Senator or Representative, or person holding an office of trust or profit under the United States, shall be appointed an Elector."

This is a continuation of the argument in the "Commentaries" quoted under section 791, above. The Attorney-General then cites section 3 of the Fourteenth Amendment and certain sections of the Revised Statutes in which members of Congress are contradistinguished from other officers in a similar way. He concludes as follows:

"Section 6 of the act of August 16, 1876, being legislation of the same character as that just re-

ferred to, it is fair to assume that the word 'officer' is there used in the narrower sense adverted to, and that it does not include a member of Congress. The provisions of that section are intended to regulate the conduct of the inferior officers of the Executive Department of the Government, etc., with respect to these and other officers, etc., who are in the public service as ordinarily understood. To place a construction there which would embrace among the latter those who are not officers in the common acceptance of the word, and thus enlarge the penal effect of these provisions, would not be warranted by any sound rule of interpretation. Upon these considerations, I am of opinion that a member of Congress is not an officer of the Government within the meaning of that section."

Upon this reasoning he assumes (1) that members of Congress "are not officers in the common acceptance of the word"; (2) that to place a construction upon the Act which would embrace members of Congress would "enlarge the penal effect" of its provisions; (3) that this "would not be warranted by any sound rule of interpretation."

These propositions will be considered in their order. (1) Are members of Congress officers in the common acceptance of the word? The Attorney-General himself says upon this point:

"Unquestionably, the station of members of Congress, Senators, or Representatives is a public office, taking these terms in a broad and general sense, and the incumbent thereof must be regarded as an officer of the Government in the same sense. Thus provision is made for administering 'an oath of office' to the members of both Houses of Congress; so the words, 'Every person appointed or elected to any office of honor or profit, either in the civil, military, or naval service,' employed in Section 1756, Revised Statutes, which prescribes an oath of office, includes members of Congress; so in Section 1786, which provides that 'whenever any person holding office, except as a member of Congress,' etc., the station of member of Congress is distinctly recognized as an office."

In *Olmstead v. the Mayor of New York* (42 New York Superior Court, 481), the following definition of an officer is given: "An officer is one who is invested with an office." This raises the question, What is an office? The following definition of an office was given in the same case: "An office is a right to exercise a public function or employment, and take the fees and emoluments belonging to it." Similar definitions have been given in other cases, but they are not very satisfactory. The following definition may be found in *United States v. Hartwell* (6 Wall., 393): "An office is a public station, or employment, conferred by the appointment of Government. The term embraces the ideas of tenure, duration, emolument, and duties." The word "appointment," as employed in this definition, must include election; otherwise, all elective offices would be excluded, and among them that of President. So, also, for the same reason, the word "Government" is manifestly used in a similarly broad sense. The word "appoint" is used in the Constitution in relation to certain elective offices—*e. g.*, Presidential Electors. "Each State shall appoint . . . a number of Electors" (Art. 2, sec. 1). Strictly considered, the clause "conferred by the appointment of Government" does not appear to be any part of the definition of an office. It simply states *how* an office is conferred, not *what* an office is. Nor does it appear to be a distinguishing mode of conferring an office. There are public employments which are not offices, which are "conferred by the appointment of Government." A special agent

appointed by the Secretary of War, to superintend the construction of a public building for which an appropriation is made, under the implied authority arising from the appropriation and attending circumstances, is not an officer. He is an employee. So, civil surgeons appointed by the Commissioner of Pensions, under Section 4777 of the Revised Statutes, are not officers (*United States v. Germaine*, 99 U. S., 508).

An office is a public employment, and something more—that is, some further qualification is necessary to distinguish it from those public employments which are not offices, such as special agents, employees, and others. This was probably perceived by the Supreme Court in *United States v. Hartwell*, but the clause employed for the purpose does not appear to supply the necessary qualification. An office appears to be distinguished from all other public employments by its being established by law. The Constitution provides that the President " . . . shall nominate, and by and with the advice and consent of the Senate shall appoint, Ambassadors, other Public Ministers and Consuls, Judges of the Supreme Court, and all other officers of the United States, whose appointments are not herein otherwise provided for, and which shall be established by law" (Art. 2, sec. 2). Considered grammatically, there may be doubt whether the clause, "which shall be established by law," relates to "appointments" or to "officers," but logically, it relates to offices. It is to be read, all other offices of the United States which shall be established by law.

The distinction is also indicated by the difference in the source of the right of an officer and of an employee to compensation. The compensation of an employee arises from contract, either expressed or implied. The compensation of an officer is the reward which is authorized by law to be paid to him. It is given upon grounds of public policy, by reason of the public employment. The right of an officer to the compensation of an office does not arise from contract, either by reason of his appointment or of services rendered by him; it is a statutory grant, and as such it is incident to the legal title to the office. The amount and character of the compensation of an office are subject to the control of Congress, except in those cases in which such control has been restricted by the Constitution (*People v. Tieman*, 30 Barbour, 195; *Embo v. United States*, 160 U. S., 680).

If this reasoning is correct, an accurate definition of an office of the United States would be given as follows: An office is a public station, or employment, established by law. In its fullest extent, it would comprise a title, possession, a tenure, a term, public duties and powers, and personal rights and privileges of the incumbent.

Under the last or any of the definitions given above, a member of Congress would be an officer of the United States. The fact that Congress has in some instances used language which implies that, in those cases, it distinguished its members from other officers, would not warrant the inference that the words, "any other officer," used in the act of August 15, 1876, were not intended to include members of Congress. The effect of such an in-

rence would be to insert an exception in the act, so that the phrase would read: "Any other officer, *except* Senators and members of the House of Representatives." There is no ground for assuming that if the attention of Congress had been called to the subject it would have made such an exception. The presumption is that Congress used the words in their ordinary and *general* sense—i.e., that it intended precisely what it said. To justify the construction proposed, it must be clearly shown that the words "any other officer" do not in their ordinary and general sense include members of Congress. This the mere fact that they have sometimes been used in a narrower sense fails to do.

The second and third propositions of the Attorney-General are: (2) to place a construction upon the act which would embrace members of Congress would enlarge the *penal* effect of its provisions; and (3) this would not be warranted by any sound rule of interpretation. The language is not as clear as could be wished, but it appears to imply that where general words which are sometimes used in a broad and sometimes in a narrow sense are employed in a penal statute, the rule does not warrant the interpretation of them in their broad sense. There is, however, an important consideration here which is not referred to by the Attorney-General—namely, the nature of the mischief and the remedy. When this act was passed, it was well known to Congress that contributions for political purposes were made through its members. To have excepted them from the provisions of the act would have been to impair, if not to entirely nullify, the statute. To do this by construction "is not warranted by any sound rule of construction." Moreover, the rule of strict construction does not mean that a narrow sense must be given to the words, but that the case must come within the words; thus "house" includes not only "abode," but "building" (*State v. Powers*, 36 Conn., 77). That is, they are not to be extended by implication. Penal as well as beneficial statutes are to be so construed as fairly to suppress the mischief and advance the remedy (*Parkinson v. State*, 14 Md., 184); and are to extend to every case within the mischief, if within the words (*Hoffman v. State*, 29 Ala., 40). We are bound to interpret penal statutes according to the manifest import of the words, and to hold all cases which are within the words and the mischief to be within the remedial influence of the statute (*The Schooner Industry*, 1 Gall., 114). In *United States v. Winn*, 3 Sum., 211, it is said:

"Now, I do not think anything material in the construction of this statute can turn upon the rule, so ably and strenuously expounded at the bar, that penal statutes are to be construed strictly. I agree to that rule in its true and sober sense; and that is, that penal statutes are not to be enlarged by implication, or extended to cases not obviously within their words and purport. But where the words are general, and include various classes of persons, I know of no authority which would justify the court in restricting them to one class, or in giving them the narrowest interpretation, where the mischief to be redressed by the statute is equally applicable to all of them. And where a word is used in a statute which has various known significations, I know of no rule that requires the court to adopt one in preference to another, simply because it is more restrained, if the objects of the statute equally apply to the largest and broadest sense of the word."

Of course the Attorney-General may be right, and this argument wrong. But no fair-minded man will agree with Mr. Brewster that this question is too plain to be discussed.

#### CAMP-MEETINGS.

THE *Tribune* of Monday, in speaking of the camp-meeting season, declares that with every year the projectors of these gatherings recognize their undertaking more and more to be merely a "business enterprise," like a beach hotel, or an excursion; while "the old-fashioned camp-meeting, with its zeal, its excitement, its real fervor, and its blasphemy, is rapidly becoming an almost extinct social phenomenon," and regrets that "the manner in which these meetings have been conducted hitherto has not justified the belief that the convocation of huge crowds in a seaside resort to bathe, flirt, pray, and repent of their sins at once, is conducive to the successful presentation of the cause of Christ."

The projectors of camp-meetings might obviously defend themselves against this criticism by urging that a huge religious seaside pilgrimage is impossible without a carefully planned business organization, and that from the time of the Crusades to the present day no large heterogeneous multitude has ever got together and remained together for some time without a good many things happening of a sort to make the judicious grieve. As to the "old-fashioned" camp-meeting, they would probably say that the camp-meeting must always be very much what the community is: it is a democratic and voluntary assemblage; and if it was more zealous and fervid fifty years ago than it is now, this must be simply because the community has lost its zeal and fervor. That is no reason why it should not obey its religious instincts, such as they are.

Of course it is impossible to deny that camp-meetings may do some good. We have no means of comparing the condition of society as affected by camp-meetings with its condition as it would be without them. But as a religious phenomenon, their continued success is one more indication of the general change which is coming over religion all over the world, as dogmatic faith of all sorts loses its hold on men's minds, and as the old mediæval idea of penance as a necessary means of salvation becomes more and more unpopular. Were it possible to imagine a good mediæval monk conducting a camp-meeting, nobody can question that it would be a very different affair from any camp-meeting that we know anything about now. In the first place, he would not select a cool place to hold it in. He would argue that, the road to spiritual grace being through mortification of the flesh, a meeting of the sort in summer ought to be held in as hot a place as possible. Instead of the seaside he would, therefore, select a city, and, if he knew the United States, would probably pick out New York as, on the whole, the best place for his encampment. By selecting a few unimproved up-town blocks for his camping-ground, and holding an occasional prayer-meeting in a down-town "garden," he could probably inflict enough physical torture on his hearers to make them ready to do almost anything he

assured them was good for their souls. By forbidding the consumption of ice-cream, separating the sexes, and so cutting off all opportunities for "flirting," and prohibiting all use of the public baths, he would still further promote the misery of his congregation; while with vivid pictures of how infinitely greater their suffering in a future life would be if they did not turn from their sins and repent, he would make them feel the practical value of religion.

Such camp-meetings as these were not tried in the middle ages or set on foot by the Calvinistic inheritors of the mediæval ideas of future rewards and punishments, chiefly because railroads were unknown, and locomotion was consequently difficult. Monastic life at its best was, however, based on the theory that happiness hereafter was only to be obtained by misery here; and had the monks had railroad facilities, there can hardly be a doubt that they would have got up just such camp-meetings as we have suggested. But they could only have been successful in an age of belief. In an age of doubt like ours, exactly the opposite policy has to be pursued: people have to be tempted and wheedled into religion, not frightened or persecuted into it. As the world has become skeptical, and the necessity of "having a good time" while life lasts has become impressed upon people's minds more and more, religion, which must always offer inducements of some kind to detach the worldling from his ordinary pursuits, is obliged to make very different propositions to him. The camp-meeting is merely one of the agencies for doing this, just as the æsthetic movement in "swell" churches, with its appeal to the love of painting, music, and ornamentation, is with a different class. Of course, as the class is less cultivated and intelligent and refined, the inducements held out will be less so too. Instead of appealing to the ear and eye and the mind, an appeal may frankly be made to the stomach. People who would not care a straw for mural paintings may be tempted by ice-cream. A family which does not know the difference between a Gregorian chant and *La ci darem*, may be induced to join the movement by the prospect of daily surl-bathing. From this point of view the camp-meeting as an institution merely illustrates a religious extreme. The same country which, a hundred and fifty years since, produced Jonathan Edwards, has now for a certain class of the community so modified the terrible dogmas that he taught that his successors find one of the most popular forms of worship to consist in a protracted picnic.

#### THE BRITISH GOVERNMENT ON EGYPT.

LONDON, July 24, 1882.

THE debate in the House of Commons on the vote of credit for the expenses of the British expedition to Egypt begins to-night. But before party controversy has developed, not to say distorted, the position of the Government, it is worth while examining with some care the assumptions from which the British Foreign Secretary, Lord Granville, starts, and to which he has given distinct expression in the despatch, just issued to the public, which was addressed to Lord Dufferin, British Ambassador at Constan-



tinople, on the 11th of July, the day of the bombardment.

Lord Granville refers back to the treaty of the 15th of July, 1840, which, he says, "provides that the administration of the country should devolve on the descendants of Mohammed Ali in the direct line." This, by the way, is a very summary, and therefore inexact, account of the transaction referred to. It was in fact a convention to which Great Britain, Austria, Prussia, Russia, and the Porte were parties, the purpose of which was to protect Constantinople against Mohammed Ali, the rebellious but all-victorious Viceroy of Egypt, on condition that the Porte guaranteed to the Viceroy the hereditary government of Egypt, and also life-government of southern Syria. The terms of submission of Mohammed Ali were incorporated in the convention; but they were not conformed to at the time. It took a year to secure Mohammed Ali's compliance, and it was not obtained without active military operations by the British fleet on the Syrian coast, including the bombardment of Acre, and direct political pressure by Commodore Napier. However, the submission on the terms of the convention of July 15, 1840, was ultimately secured so far as Egypt was concerned, and the fact of it was recited in a protocol agreed to by the conference of London on July 12, 1841, between the same Powers which were parties to the convention. France, which, in spite of long holding off, the day after joined the other Powers in a treaty for the protection of the Dardanelles and the Bosphorus, may be held to have implicitly acquiesced in the arrangement.

Lord Granville might have dwelt on the circumstance that Great Britain took the lead in all these transactions, and was, in fact, more responsible than any other single Power for the separation of Egypt from Turkey and for the proper administration of Egypt under the dynasty of Mohammed Ali. The history of this earlier relationship to Egypt is a necessary preface to the concern of Great Britain in the recovery of the country from the financial ruin and degradation which were the consequences of the misgovernment of Ismail, the ex-Khedive, and Mohammed Ali's grandson. His Lordship passes lightly over the circumstances which led to and justified the interference of England and France in the latter part of Ismail's reign, for the purpose of financial reconstruction, though he describes with precision the nature of the institution of the European "Control." The real justification of this special interference must be sought and found in the peculiar measure in which, in Egypt, bad finance and a reckless system of borrowing were implicated with every form of bad government. It needed great pressure on the Khedive to procure his assent to the Commission of Inquiry of 1878, in which all the chief European Governments were represented, and which reported on the whole state of the country and of the administration so far as the national finances could possibly be affected by it. The most important recommendation it made was in favor of restricting the irresponsible despotism of the Khedive. It was this unlimited control of the Government which enabled him to borrow money to any amount he pleased from astute European money-lenders, and to oppress his people by extortionate taxation and wild military undertakings involving tyrannical modes of conscription. The report and recommendations of the Commission were adopted by the states of Europe, and France and England were practically charged to act upon them. After many tentative and unsuccessful efforts to introduce a reign of order, and to promote solvency under the Khedive Ismail, he was finally

displaced, and his son Tewfik made to reign in his stead. The new Khedive thus reigned by a strictly European title, while the English and French officials, to whom was entrusted an absolute veto on all Ministerial acts which they might hold prejudicial to the financial settlement, exercised an effective check on capricious rule. At the same time a number of special arrangements, boards, commissions, and liquidation schemes, were put in working order under European administrators, with the view of paying a reduced interest to the bondholders in a way least burdensome to the people, and of ultimately freeing the country from its obligations.

Of course such laborious and comprehensive intervention as this could not be carried out without exciting all sorts of animosities against Europeans, and stirring to organized opposition all those who had vested interests in abuses and corruption. It was easy in the minds of Englishmen at a distance to confuse the love of native misgovernment with a patriotic sentiment of resistance to the intrusive foreigner. The army was the most centralized and cohesive of all the persons and bodies which suffered from retrenchment and reform. It thus naturally happened that among the army, even so early as in the last year of Ismail's reign, a revolutionary spirit first manifested itself. Lord Granville tersely describes the successive steps by which the military authority obtained ascendancy over the civil.

It has been said in some quarters that it is no imputation on the essentially patriotic character of an Oriental revolution that it first finds voice in the army, because in Eastern countries the army usually represents the only part of the population which is not depressed to the level of what would be slavery in the West, and consequently unable to entertain or express any political cravings. But this excuse at least demands that the rank and file of the army should, from the first, share in, if not anticipate, the action of their leaders; and it is more than a suspicious sign if, for some months, or rather for two years, the only malcontents are a few of the chief officers, and the only political demands urged relate to personal advancement, to promotion, to increase of pay, and to the transfer of effective power over the army from the civil authority to the officer of the army.

Lord Granville explains the bombardment to have been a matter of "simple and legitimate self-defence." He says Her Majesty's Government had no right to expose the fleet by a course of passive neglect to the increased danger which the threatening preparations involved, and he notices that those preparations were persisted in "in defiance of the orders of the Sultan, of the wish of the Khedive, and in contravention of the explicit assurances" of the military authorities. It is scarcely worth while, except as a matter of abstract legal interest, to inquire now whether the bombardment was, in fact, a declaration of war in itself, or, like "reprisals" and "retortion," an isolated act limited to its immediate purposes and consequences, and which might or might not be followed by a state of war. No doubt a state of war would have been held to exist during the bombardment itself, so far as to carry with it all the consequences of the distinction between "combatants" and "non-combatants," and of the restrictions of needless severities and of good treatment of prisoners and the like. But the state of war was local and transient, and could not have borne any legally extensive interpretation beyond the precise necessities of the case, as prescribed by humanity and legal analogy. The concluding passage of Lord Granville's despatch puts the English case concisely and yet adequately.

On the whole, it is seldom that so large an

amount of unanimity has existed in the country on the eve of war. The daily papers, by an extraordinary energy of telegraphic correspondence almost from hour to hour, have kept the people thoroughly well informed, and, on the whole, the papers are nearly of one mind. The main criticism in to-night's and to-morrow's debate will be of an *ad hominem* kind, addressed to Mr. Gladstone's Government, for engaging in a similar active foreign policy to that which they condemned in the case of Lord Beaconsfield's Government. Other criticism will be founded on the delay, and some of the incidents of the diplomacy. Of course, those who resent all sorts of intervention will have their say, though it will scarcely be expected that Mr. Bright will endeavor to defend in words the arbitrary line he has drawn, by leaving the Government, between assenting to a demonstration of force and joining to command the use of it. A.

#### "PARSIFAL" AT BAYREUTH.

BAYREUTH, July 23, 1882.

THE rehearsals for the impending performance of "Parsifal" are making satisfactory progress. Every morning and afternoon a few dozen carriages containing the leading vocalists of all Germany and Austria may be seen creeping up the hill, about a mile beyond the centre of the town, on which the Wagner Theatre stands. The rules as to the exclusion from the rehearsals of non-participants are this time most rigidly carried into execution. An enterprising foreign critic who endeavored to secure admission under the protecting wing of a prominent vocalist soon discovered that he had reckoned without his host. Wagner, fearing that he might yield to the urgent solicitations of friends, has put the whole matter into the hands of a festival committee, with summary orders not to make any exceptions. This enables him to maintain toward his patrons the friendly-severe attitude of Kaiser Wilhelm, who tells his servants when they make a blunder, such as leaving open a door, that if they do so again he will inform the court marshal.

Wagner himself is, as usual when he superintends the production of a work of his, in a state of incredible activity and nervous tension. Doubtless his Italian tour last winter was undertaken principally with a view to lay in a good stock of vitality and health for the great demands the months of July and August were to make on him. During the rehearsals he is omnipresent and omnipotent—like a ship's captain or a general, who knows the duties of all his subordinates better than they do themselves. One moment he stands before the orchestra and begs them to repeat a certain passage more softly or with more emphasis and expression in the individual parts. The next moment he is in the middle of the auditorium, studying the effect of the scenery. Returning to the stage, he stands before the vocalists, shows them how to interpret certain passages, how and where to stand, what mimic expression to assume, how to hold their hands, and how to walk; all of which shows that Wagner while composing has the image of the whole situation with all its details as clearly before his eyes as if he saw it in its stage embodiment. So closely, indeed, does he anticipate the general result that, where an error of calculation does creep in, it affects him like a terrible disappointment. This happened a few days ago, when it was found that one of the intended very effective scenic transformations took more time than the progress of the music allowed it, so that it had to be modified somewhat. But if anything succeeds according to his wish and intention he expresses his satisfaction with the innocent happiness of a child. Frau Cosima Wag-

ner had assisted him, it seems, in devising some of the floral decorations for the scene in the wizard *Klingsor's* castle in the second act, where the charming flower-girls endeavor to allure the "guileless fool" *Parsifal*. When this scene was first presented Wagner shouted to Frau Cosima, in the auditorium, "You see, my dear little wife, that we can get up something together, after all." I quote this little incident chiefly as another illustration of the assistance occasionally rendered great men by their wives.

While Wagner is thus busy every day for five or six hours, notwithstanding his sixty-nine years, it is natural that he should not be very accessible to strangers. All his personal and epistolary intercourse is during the festival as far as possible attended to by his wife. It is only in this way that Wagner is enabled to give all his time and attention to his artists. These are all so devoted to him that they gladly sacrifice their whole summer's vacation, and large sums of money for "starring engagements," for the mere honor of singing at Bayreuth and for the benefit of Wagner's personal instruction. Never, surely, have artists been more devoted to their teacher and the task he has set them. Two of the vocalists chosen to act the part of *Kundry* (one of the most wonderful of creations) told me on the same day that they were repeatedly unable to restrain their tears—and these were only imperfect rehearsals. The piano score gives no idea of the beauty of the music, especially in the third act, in which Joseph Rubinstein has done some inferior work. The enthusiasm the music creates in all the artists is the most convincing proof of its grandeur, and it is this enthusiasm alone which enables them to interpret their terribly difficult parts in an effective manner. For it must be remembered that the time devoted to rehearsals is this year very brief—less than four weeks. Wagner's intention at first was to have full rehearsals for those vocalists only who appear on the first night (every leading part is to be sung by three artists in turn), the others being present in the auditorium to take notes. Some of the artists, however, objected to appearing without preliminary rehearsal, so that the plan of operations had to be altered and extended, much to the discomfiture of the poor instrumentalists, who are obliged to sweat in their "mystic abyss," which affords them only this advantage—that they can play without their coats on, or even in bathing-suits if they please, as no one in the auditorium can see them.

The poor tourists and critics who came here a week before the first performance, in the hope that they might get into the theatre during the rehearsals without the assistance of the Nibelung's Tarabhelm, by which they might make themselves invisible, are now obliged to spend their time in visiting the sights of Bayreuth—Jean Paul's house, the lovely Hermitage; King Ludwig's castle, with its parks, gem-covered Apollo temple and complicated waterworks, once the residence of the sister of Frederick II., who here wrote her well-known memoirs; or the Lustschloss and Park Fantasie, the property of Duke Alexander of Württemberg, but now to be sold to some wealthy private persons; or the tower commemorating the victories of the Franco-German war, erected on the top of a hill high above the Wagner Theatre, from which a charming view is obtained of Bayreuth and the numerous groves, wooded hills, and picturesque villages in the neighborhood. About the time of sunset the top of this tower is one of the most romantic situations a poet could find to await inspiration, and I should not be surprised to hear that Wagner was frequently seen there with a note-book in hand. After supper many of our rehearsal-excluded tourists or

pilgrims may be seen on the piazza of one of the two restaurants built at the sides of the Wagner Theatre, watching to get a glimpse of the artists as they come out. Behind the theatre there is usually a group of Bayreuthers, trying to catch such of the sounds as will penetrate through the walls. These Bayreuthers of course seldom have money enough to pay thirty marks for an admission ticket, but they are all full-blooded Wagnerites nevertheless. Who would not esteem the man who has given Bayreuth for music the importance Weimar once had for poetry, and who once in a while enables every Bayreuther to rent his spare rooms at the rate of a dollar a day, where ordinarily he could only get a quarter? To all appearance, the Bayreuthers are going to be more rational this time than they were during the Nibelung festival. On that occasion they threatened to kill their goose for the sake of its one golden egg; and the indignation aroused by their extortions was so great that it threatened to make another festival impossible. In 1876 I had to pay with a friend ten marks (\$2 50) a day for a small damp room with two beds; this time I have a large airy room, facing a lovely garden, for four marks a day. A good *table d'hôte* dinner can be secured at the Hôtel Sonne, amidst all the "Parsifal" singers, for fifty cents, and an excellent bottle of Rhine wine for the same price. These are not ruinous prices for those who can afford to come to Bayreuth to hear "Parsifal"; and it is possible to get along much cheaper yet at the restaurants, where, too, one can hear the instrumentalists discussing their parts, or a group of flower-girls drinking un-aesthetic beer and criticising the flowers allotted to them on the stage because the petals in some of them are pointed the wrong way. To the Bayreuthers these flower-girls are an object of especial interest; and there are indeed few features of the "Parsifal" scenery which are not already spoken of as familiar objects in all the beer-houses. Yesterday I even met a little butcher boy who whistled the four simple notes of the bell motive out of which Wagner in the first act constructs such a wonderful symphony.

Those who have kept an eye on Wagnerian criticism in newspapers and pamphlets since the "Nibelung" performances in 1876 must have been frequently surprised or amused at the extreme animosity constantly shown toward poor Bayreuth. Not only the enemies, but some even of the friends, of the new music-drama are convinced that the plan of building a special theatre and organizing a series of festivals in a small provincial town was only a whim of Wagner's, which he was enabled to carry into execution through the generosity of a royal friend and his numerous admirers, who formed themselves into societies to further his project. Any one of the German capitals, we are told, with its old-established opera-house, would have been a more favorable place for successfully realizing such a plan.

From a financial point of view this is doubtless true, for Germans as a class are too poor to make a long tour (or Bayreuthiad) every three years to hear an excellent operatic performance; and it is quite possible that Wagner exaggerates the advantages to be gained by freedom from the turmoil and excitement of city life, and the concentration of the mind for days at a time on one object. But those who thus plead for the large cities thereby show that they have not read the history of Wagner's life. He was obliged to conceive the plan of Bayreuth because no German capital offered him an opportunity to produce his Tetralogy in accordance with his own intentions and principles. The great success achieved by that work in 1876, and in every German city where it has since been

produced, has of course so completely changed the state of affairs that it is safe to say there is not a single manager in this country who would not have jumped at the opportunity to produce "Parsifal" on any conditions its author might name; and if Wagner should change his mind in regard to this drama as he did with his Tetralogy, and, instead of reserving it for Bayreuth in subsequent years, give it over to the managers, at least two-score would send in their offers on the first day. But this was not so before 1876.

One important consequence of the festival of 1876 has been that, whereas previously good Wagner singers were rare, they are now to be heard in every city, and it can be seen at the present rehearsals that Wagner has much less to suggest and correct than six years ago. A single hint often suffices to render easy a passage previously considered almost unsingable; and when we consider that without these hints there would have been no traditions as to the correct manner of singing Wagner's latest works, one cannot be sufficiently thankful that the idea of Bayreuth was realized. At the same time it remains doubtful if Bayreuth will ever become what Wagner intended it to be—a dramatic high school at which vocalists may meet every summer for practice in the new style. My private opinion is that he will not be able to resist the tempting offers for "Parsifal" that will soon be made to him by various managers; and that the next Bayreuth festival will not take place until his new drama, "The Victor," or "Buddha," as it is variously called, is completed.

"Parsifal" will be of interest not only from its intrinsic merits, but as a complement to "Lohengrin." Many admirers of this first grail tragedy have often wished to know something more about the abode of the Knights of the Holy Grail from which *Lohengrin* was sent to succor the unhappy maiden *Elsa*, in accordance with the mission of these knights. In "Parsifal" this wish will be fully gratified, as its hero is the father of *Lohengrin*, with whose adventures and temptations it deals. In his 'Thematic Guide Through the Music of Parsifal' Hans von Wolzogen protests against the current notion that Wagner's dramas are based on the mediæval poems of Christian authors. The germs of the various legends which Wagner has used came to Europe through the Aryan migrations from Asia. They were adopted by the mediæval poets and dressed as epics in the manners and customs of their own time. The legend of "Parsifal" was introduced into Germany from France by Wolfram von Eschenbach, whose poem throughout shows the influence of Chrestiens de Troyes's "Conte du Graal." Wolfram's "Parzival" is called by Johannes Scherr the first great work of German idealism, and is placed by Vilmar as a psychological epic side by side with Goethe's "Faust"—a psychological drama. With Wolfram's poem Wagner's has many features in common; but it avoids all the epic details, and with genuine theatric instinct combines its most dramatic features with different versions by other poets; the result being a work of much greater unity and poetic value than that of any of its predecessors. It would be interesting to compare these different versions with one another did space permit. As it is, I can only say that Wagner retains the old Spanish signification of the word grail (or grail), a cup, and namely, the cup that was used at the Last Supper and subsequently received the crucified Saviour's blood; whereas in Wolfram's poem the grail is a sacred stone, which was given into the care of Titular and his pious knight on the Mount Monsalvat, which is inaccessible to sinners. For the much-disputed word Parsifal (Parzival, Perceval,



Peredur) Wagner adopts the interpretation of Görres, who derives it from the Arabic Parsch-Fal, i. e., the pure or guileless fool.

#### BISMARCK AFTER THE CRIMEAN WAR.—I.

BERLIN, July 12, 1882.

THE second volume of the book 'Prussia in the Bundestag' has made its appearance much sooner than had been anticipated. It comprises the years 1854-1856, and is chiefly devoted to the Eastern war and its consequences for the Prussian policy. While in the first volume we made the acquaintance of an able young ambassador, who had to fight his way with subaltern characters and to contend with comparatively insignificant diplomatic trifles, in the present one we meet a prominent statesman, who, although behind the scenes, plays an important part on a large historical stage. The stagnant Federal Council was as dull and of little account as ever; it was, as Bismarck expressed himself, like a mill which clacks a great deal, but makes little flour, and the road to it was a very sandy one, on which the Ministers wasted their strength in vain. The necessity of reforming the Diet was everywhere felt; but as to the ways and means by which such an object should be accomplished, confusion and embarrassment ruled supreme. Bismarck was the only Minister who had formed firm convictions and settled plans to effect a radical change in that rather superfluous body, but he did not think it practicable to put the ball in motion just at that time.

It was when the present volume opens—viz., toward the end of 1853—that the petty routine of the Diet was stirred up by the Eastern entanglement, and that Bismarck found occasion to try his hand in larger political questions. In his letters he is as vivid and provoking as ever. They abound in good-humored attacks, sharp criticism, and benevolent sarcasms on his colleagues. "All the diplomatists except myself," he writes on February 28, 1855, "are highly satisfied with the news that Prokesch has been recalled. I do not consider his successor, Rechberg, as bad in his political aims, but more able and more energetic." The Austrian Secretary of State, Count Buol-Schauenstein, paid a flying visit to Frankfort to receive the homages of the Ministers accredited there. At his invitation they all went to see him with the sole exception of Bismarck, who characterized the Austrian Secretary as follows: "I wish that only for one hour I could be what Buol thinks himself all day, for then my glory before God and man would be firmly established for all time to come." It must have been a fine collection of diplomatic mummies at the Frankfort Diet, at least as depicted by Bismarck: the English Minister, a sportsman who cared for nothing but riding and fishing; the Frenchman, also a horseman and sportsman, whose time was solely occupied by these noble passions; the Austrian, a conceited fool; and the *dii minorum gentium*, irresolute ninnies. It is only against the Austrian ambassador that a bitter malice pervades Bismarck's remarks, who is stung by his colleague's stupid arrogance, and with the sharpest repartees pays back what he has to swallow. On another occasion the French Minister at Berlin, the Marquis de Moustier, blamed Bismarck's conduct and policy in the Crimean war: "It will lead you to Jena," the Frenchman said; whereupon the German answered: "Why not to Leipzig or Waterloo?"

But all these rebukes, animosities, and hostilities were tempests in a teapot, in comparison with the threatening aspect of public affairs. It is not my province to sketch the Crimean War, the less as its details do not fall within the

range of Bismarck's activity. Suffice it, therefore, to say that Prussia's policy during that whole time was weak, vacillating, and unsatisfactory to all parties concerned. The irresolute King wavered from one side to the other: to-day opened negotiations with the Czar of Russia, who considered him as a mere tool, whose opinion it was not worth while asking for, and, alluding to his love of champagne and his old-womanhood, contemptuously nicknamed him "Veuve Clicquot"; to-morrow trying to come to terms with England, who did not trust him. At another time he feared and at the same time despised Louis Napoleon as an adventurer, and then again he distrusted Austria. By some of the other Governments, also, gross blunders were made. Austria, for instance, was not at all better, but she had a policy of her own, and changed her position and aims with more outward decency and pretence. Berlin at that time was a nest of intrigues between the Russian and Franco-English adversaries. Even high officials betrayed state secrets to the parties which paid well for them. Sebastopol would not have been taken so soon if the French Minister at Berlin had not bought the Russian reports representing the weak state of that fortress in the Emperor of Russia's own words. There were two parties striving for triumph in the immediate surroundings of the King—Bunsen, who stood up for the English view of the war and a quadruple alliance against Russia, and General Gerlach, who was an enthusiastic admirer of Czar Nicholas, and wanted to win Frederick William IV. over to the Russian side. Aside from these influences, Bismarck peremptorily demanded that Prussia should keep aloof from any connection with the ambitious schemes of Austria, and he finally succeeded in having her wavings rejected by Prussia. The only man, therefore, who saw clearly in these matters was Bismarck.

It cannot, accordingly, be wondered at that under such circumstances a general contempt of the Prussian policy prevailed in Europe. After the war she stood isolated, and was looked down upon as a second-rate power, whose friendship was considered of no importance whatever. Bismarck's relations to the Crimean War begin toward the end of 1853, when Austria and Prussia had concluded a treaty (afterward not carried out) by which they guaranteed to each other their non-German provinces, and for which they both wanted the consent and accession of the Federal Diet. Bismarck was opposed to this policy from the beginning. He by this time had learned enough of overbearing Austria, who not only wanted the support of Prussia for carrying out her own plans against Russia, but at any moment was ready to throw the weight and burden of the war on Prussia. "What interest have we," he reasoned, "to act as policeman for Austria? What extraordinary service has Austria rendered us to make us respectfully follow her tracks? Is it to reward her for having discredited us with the smaller German States, or trumpeted to the world that the Emperor Francis Joseph is master of Frederick William IV., and leads him wherever he pleases? If Austria wants to pick up a war of conquest against Russia, let her do it at her own expense. We have nothing to defend at the mouth of the Danube, and had better keep away from her ambitious quarrels." What Bismarck positively wanted to accomplish was not the acquisition of a larger or smaller tract of territory, but, after the conclusion of peace, such relations to the European Powers that he could arrive at a plain settlement with Austria, which for him meant as much as her exclusion from the Confederacy.

His views are fully given in a letter which, on April 26, 1856, a few weeks after the conclusion of the Paris peace, he addressed to Herr von

Manteuffel, then Secretary of State. At that time Louis Napoleon was at the height of his power; all Europe flattered and courted him, or offered him alliances. Prussia was diplomatically more humiliated than (from a military point of view) by Jena. The following letter forms a terse review of past events, and gives a clew to the next ten years of Prussian policy and European history. I am bound to give its principal parts in full, as I should not do justice to its strength and vigor if I were only to epitomize it:

"There is very little confidence in the preservation of the peace just concluded," he says, "and all the Cabinets of Europe regard the near future with a certain discomfort. Great and small are trying to preserve the amity of France, and the Emperor Napoleon has the choice of alliances offered him. It does not seem as if the extravagant endeavors of Orloff had shaken the apple from the tree; it will fall of itself when it is ripe, and Russia will catch it. Count Buol's *acte de soumission* and Austria's ambition to become the first of the Rhenish Confederate States [an allusion to the Rhenish Confederation under the first Napoleon], provided that Prussia will be satisfied to occupy the second or third rank, have, as it appears, been received with a courteous reserve by the Emperor Napoleon. The officious *Wiener-Press* therefore does not give up the hope of a Catholic league with France, and in the meantime praises the Valtairian Kaunitz because that statesman stood for France [with which, under Maria Theresa, he concluded an alliance]. The German middle States are, as heretofore, ready to submit to that one of the German great Powers which has the best prospect of the support of France, and to look for assistance to the latter if circumstances should make it advisable.

"England places no less value on the continuance of her good relations with France, and the wedded life of the two Western Powers, although grown a little morose, will not too hastily be divorced. A rupture would be the most expensive and dangerous alternative that could happen to both of them. The war has raised and elevated the French fleet, and in a possible conflict with Napoleon England would have to prepare herself at the same time to divide and set her forces against Russia and America. The present state of the English land force also recommends the preservation of the Western alliance, and the annoyance at 'the French peace' will at the utmost find a vent in teasing France. Louis Napoleon, on the other side, will for the present be kept in check by the state of his finances and by the apprehension of domestic difficulties. If he should force a rupture with England, he would do what he could beforehand to raise the French national feeling against 'perfidious Albion' to such a degree that all English attempts to create disturbances in France would glide off like water from a duck's back.

"It is very improbable that Louis Napoleon will begin a war merely for the sake of a war, or that he is stimulated by the conqueror's ambition. On the contrary, he will preserve peace as long as he can reconcile it with the disposition of the Army and consequently with his own security. Should he nevertheless want a war, he will know how to keep open a question which at any time will offer him a pretext not too wanton or too unjust to act upon. The Italian question is at present particularly well adapted for this purpose. The disorder of her public affairs, the ambition of Sardinia, the Bonapartist and Muratistic reminiscences, and the Corsican fellow-countrymanship, offer a great many starting-points to the oldest son of the Roman Church. The hatred against the Italian princes and the Austrians smoothes his road, while in Germany he can expect no help from our democracy and from the princes except on condition of his having already proved his strength without them. Although the war is not so near at hand as gloomy prophets affirm, new political groups will nevertheless be formed whose importance and influence are based on the possibility of a war under a fixed constellation of alliances."

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## Correspondence.

A NATIONAL CIRCULATING LIBRARY.

TO THE EDITOR OF THE NATION:

SIR: Will you have the kindness to direct me to any circulating library from which, by pay-

ment of a fee, I could obtain the best standard and new books?

Why has nobody started a Mudie in this country? I find my inclination and bank-account in a constant quarrel in reference to buying many books of which if I could only obtain the examination for a fraction of their value, it would be a consummation devoutly to be wished. There are, doubtless, many others situated as I am, far from all libraries, desirous of keeping pace with the best thought of the day, yet not wishing to buy *all* the books they would like to read. I am, for example, at present greatly interested in French dramatic criticism and literature, but find the bills from my Paris bookseller running too high in the course of a year. Are there not, peradventure, three or four others pursuing the same study in reach of the long arms of the Postmaster-General, who would be glad to join together and procure such books as might be wanted, forwarding the volumes from one address to another according to a previously arranged plan? As Sydney Smith said to his Vestry, in reference to a block pavement about St. Paul's: "All you have to do, gentlemen, is to put your heads together and the thing is done."

There are a dozen volumes on the proverbs of different nations which I would give one-fourth their cost to read; the same of German pessimistic literature, etc. What can be done for us?

I am, sir, very respectfully yours,

G. M. GOULD.

PEACH ORCHARD, LAWRENCE CO., KY.,  
July 30, 1882.

[Such a book-club as our correspondent suggests could easily be established if any energetic person would take the lead. But that sort of thing does not do itself. It must be done, too, by one of those who are to be benefited by it. No one else will face the very considerable labor of getting up the club and then of running it. Local book-clubs are plenty in New England for the purchase of American literature and for sending it around within the limits of a town. Their secretaries will testify that it is not easy to get and keep their members together. To start a national club would be a more arduous undertaking, on account of the difficulty of finding out what scholars are desirous of joining it; and running it would be still harder, on account of the difficulty of getting an agreement in the choice of books. It is one thing to buy cheap books which people who pay a moderate annual fee are willing to read for amusement or desultory improvement, and quite another thing to satisfy a number of subscribers, paying large subscriptions, in the selection of costly books for serious study. If each subscriber wants a different book, there is no saving; the economy comes from two or more agreeing upon one book and being content, even if not eager, to see some of the books chosen to gratify others.

The extent of our country is not a difficulty worth mentioning. It costs very little to send a book by mail, and no more to send it from New York to San Francisco than to Brooklyn. The financial difficulty is entirely solved if enough persons can be got to combine; and, paradoxically enough, the difficulty of suiting all tastes diminishes in exact proportion as the number of persons to be suited increases. If the right man could take hold of the work, it could be made as great and as rapid a success as the Chautauqua Course and the Society for Home Studies.

But there is another way in which our correspondent may gain his object. There are various proprietary libraries in the country which allow their books to circulate widely. Take, for instance, the Boston Athenæum. For about \$200 one can buy a share, without any formality of election, as one buys a share of bank or railway stock. At the present rate of interest this is equivalent to an annual expense of \$6 or \$7 a year. An annual payment of \$5 obtains the loan of one new book and three old books at the same time. The postage would be the same as under the club system. The purchases include a large number of English and French books, but fewer German. Moreover, the Library Committee, we understand, are always ready to purchase good books which are asked for by the proprietors. Here is an organism, already established, which seems able to save our correspondent many Parisian and London booksellers' bills. The Athenæum, by the way, publishes a monthly list of its additions, which may give him some more exact idea of their character than we have space for.

We have spoken of the most noted proprietary library in the country. There are others, of less cost, which would probably furnish correspondingly less varied reading. The shares in the Providence Athenæum, for instance, cost, if we remember right, only \$15, and the annual fee is \$5. The supply of English books is large, about 900 volumes a year; French books, however, are sparingly purchased and by fits and starts; the older books, of less interest to our correspondent, are about 40,000 in number, and are said to be very well selected. Possibly it is the existence of these small Mudies that has prevented the establishment of anything like the great London library.—ED. NATION.]

## Notes.

A HOLIDAY volume, to be called 'Harper's Christmas Pictures and Papers, Done by the Tile Club and its Literary Friends,' and of which the size of page will be twice that of *Harper's Weekly*, will contain a wood engraving by Cole (after a painting by Vedder) measuring thirty-three by twenty-one inches.

Mr. Henry J. Morgan, Keeper of the Records, Canada, is preparing a new edition of his 'Sketches of Celebrated Canadians and Persons Connected with Canada'; and also 'The Bibliotheca Canadensis; or, a Manual of Canadian Literature.'

Close upon Mr. W. M. Griswold's author and subject index to certain German historical periodicals, comes a quite similar index ('Autoren- und Sach-register') to the *Deutsche Rundschau* from the same fertile source (Bangor: Q. P. Index). The *Rundschau* dates from the year 1874.

We have received the first instalment of Prof. Harrison's edition of 'Beowulf' (Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co.), consisting of the text, 101 pp., from the fourth edition of M. Heyne. Paper and press-work are admirable, and the editing, so far as we have had an opportunity of examining, is scholarly and accurate. A second part, to consist of a Glossary prepared by Prof. Sharp, is soon to complete the work, which will then commend itself readily to the needs of American students. We hope to be able to speak of the completed work more at length, after having

made a careful comparison with the fresh collation of MS. and texts just published by Wülcker.

J. B. Lippincott & Co., the present publishers of W. H. Prescott's writings, have issued 'Leaflets' of selections from his works, made for homes, libraries, and schools by Miss Josephine E. Hodgdon. The advocates of the pueblo theory of Central American civilization will have to bestir themselves with tracts on the other side.

Chief-Justice Martin's 'History of Louisiana,' originally published in two volumes in 1827, and of late years hardly obtainable, has been reprinted in a single volume by James A. Gresham, New Orleans. It is prefaced by a very entertaining account of the author's singular character and career, by Judge William Wirt Howe; and Mr. John F. Condon adds a rather bald and informal register of events from 1815 (the close of Judge Martin's 'History') to 1861. Imperfect as the latter is, it supplements in a good many particulars the corresponding summary appended to Gayarré's 'History of Louisiana—the American Domination.' The publisher has prefixed an attractive portrait of Martin.

In the *American Naturalist* for August, Gen. Benjamin Alvord, U. S. A., discussing the compass-plant, of which he was the earliest scientific observer, makes a curious disclosure concerning the well-known passage in 'Evangeline' concerning this plant. Longfellow based his simile on information supplied him by General Alvord in January, 1847, but on his own responsibility called the plant "delicate," whereas it is even coarse and sturdy. Corrected by his informant after the first edition, the poet substituted the word "vigorous" for "delicate" in later editions. A criticism by Sir J. D. Hooker on the earlier epithet leads General Alvord to remark that "in England the first editions [of Longfellow] are most read."

It is safe to assert that a very large majority of our readers are ignorant of the existence of a National Park on Mackinac Island, Michigan; that Senator Ferry, of that State, obtained the sanction of Congress for it in 1875; and that it contains 911 acres, or about two-fifths of the total area of the island. It is already a considerable summer resort; and in the double interest of visitors and hotel-keepers, Lieut. D. H. Kelton, U. S. A., who is stationed on the adjoining military reservation, has compiled the 'Annals of Fort Mackinac' (Chicago: Fergus Printing Co.), which make agreeable reading. The historical information is considerable, and the legends are skilfully narrated. It was on this romantic island that Alexis St. Martin placed science under obligation by being shot in the stomach.

The report of the Boston Board of Health becomes annually of greater importance among documents of the same kind. That for 1881-82 records the fact that in the ten years 1872-1881 the mortality of children under five years has diminished from 42.17 to 36.75 per cent. This period nearly coincides with an unprecedentedly long exemption of the city from a small-pox epidemic, the last having subsided in August, 1873, since when, up to October, 1881, there were but twenty-seven cases and two deaths. The Board recommend revaccination of all graduates of the public schools who have attained the age of fifteen. Loss of time and consequent loss of wages are the chief motives with the laboring classes for avoiding compulsory vaccination. The report gives a unique photograph of the legs of a small-pox patient on the eleventh day—a "beautiful case." The photographer was the head nurse himself.

The Providence Public Library's *Monthly Reference Lists* for July give references for the history of Local Self-Government, particularly in this country, and for European interests in



Egypt. Mr. Foster's notes show that he has more than a superficial acquaintance with the works and periodicals referred to.

The more recent numbers of the 'Anecdota Oxoniensia' series, now publishing by the Clarendon Press, embrace (Semitic) Rabbi Saadiah's Commentary on Ezra and Nehemiah; (Classical) the English MSS. of the Nicomachean Ethics, described by J. A. Stewart, M.A., and a collation of Nonius Marcellus, Harleian MS. 2719, by J. H. Onions; (Mediæval and Modern) 'Sinonoma Bartholomei,' edited by J. L. G. Mowat. This last is a medical glossary from a fourteenth-century MS. "Petroleum" already occurs in it, in the form "petraleum."

L. W. Schmidt sends us Parts 28-30 of the new thirteenth edition of 'Brockhaus' Conversations-Lexikon,' completing the second volume with the word *Bibelerklärung* (Scriptural exegesis). The most important articles are on mining (*Bergbau*), to which eleven pages are devoted; Berlin, fifteen pages, with a map and plates of public buildings; population (*Bevölkerung*); and Bible. Under *Berg*, a table of mountain heights for all the world is given; under Besançon, a map of the town and its environs. Other maps are of Asia, of Persia and its neighbors on the east, and of Bavaria, all colored. There are illustrations of the anatomy of the eye and of the famous iron band of Götz von Berlichingen, which is still preserved at Jagstfeld.

—On the 5th of July, a parcel of manuscript of Poole and Fletcher's great 'Index to Periodicals,' containing the material for about twenty printed pages, was stolen from the express on its way to the printer. Imagine the state of mind of the editors! Manuscript of that kind cannot be written out from the imagination of an editor. The indexes of some periodicals might, so far as they were concerned, furnish an imperfect substitute; but the twenty pages could never be entirely replaced without going over from beginning to end all represented in the Index—over 4,000 volumes, the three years' work of some fifty coöperators. But, fortunately, while the editors were considering how much of this could be undertaken without delaying their printer too long, the manuscript was found under a street-counter, where it had been thrown by the disappointed thief.

—The third volume of Mr. Henry J. Morgan's 'Dominion Annual Register and Review' (Montreal: John Lovell & Son) is a double issue, covering the years 1880 and 1881. It is, like its predecessors, full of interesting information concerning the progress of our neighbor republic, few as are the points at which her affairs come in contact with our own. The settlement of the Fortune Bay difficulty by payment of indemnity is one of these points, and the most important during the period indicated. The great internal concern of the Dominion, meanwhile, has been the building of its Pacific railroad, and the Government contract for this, signed in 1880, was confirmed by Parliament early in the following year. The Government on the one hand brought the islands of the Gulf of St. Lawrence into telegraphic communication with the mainland, and on the other purchased the Western Union's lines in British Columbia, and now works them itself, to the great advantage of the public, it is said. It also granted a twenty years' monopoly to a company proposing to lay a cable direct from Vancouver's Island to Japan. It acquired a title to the Arctic territory adjoining British North America. Finally, on December 4, 1881, it took a census which revealed a total population of 4,324,810. Some of the subjects of legislation were the legalizing of marriage with a deceased wife's sister or deceased brother's widow, a bill for which passed the House,

but was thrown out by the Senate by a very small majority (33 to 31); amendment of the functions of the Supreme Court, which is only seven years old, and is regarded with jealousy by the French Canadians; and improvement of the civil service. To this last end a commission of inquiry was appointed, and appears to have recommended the introduction of competitive examinations, as the minority opposed it. A list of appointments, by the way, large and small, Dominion and provincial, is printed by Mr. Morgan without unduly taxing his space. The chief party incidents of the year were Mr. Mackenzie's retirement from the leadership of the Opposition in favor of the Hon. Edward Blake and the death of George Brown, editor of the *Toronto Globe*. Mr. Morgan furnishes a diary of remarkable occurrences, abstracts of notable trials, and a readable summary of achievements in literature, science, and art. The literary product is not to be despised, though it is strongest in historical works like Ryerson's 'Loyalists of America,' and Rattray's (unfinished) 'Scot in British North America,' unless we admit (as Mr. Morgan does) Goldwin Smith's 'Cowper' and 'Lectures and Essays.' Marchand's translation (unfinished) of Kalm's journals of his travels in America, Gagnon's 'Chansons Populaires du Canada,' and Todd's 'Parliamentary Government in the British Colonies' are also deserving of mention. There are now no fewer than seven historical societies in the Dominion, one of the youngest, that of Nova Scotia, being perhaps the most vigorous and promising.

—A curious feature of parliamentary terminology and procedure across the border is what is called "the six months' hoist," which, in the absence of any glossary, we can only conjecture to mean postponement of a measure for that term. Mr. Morgan relates at some length an amusing incident which occurred in the House in May, 1879, when a Toronto barrister, seated on the floor, uttered "some offensive remarks" loud enough to be heard by the member for Sheffield, against whom they were directed, who was then making a speech. This resulted in the barrister's expulsion from the House, and exclusion after repeated efforts to return. He accordingly addressed a note to the member and sent it in to him in these terms: "Sir—I desire to state out of the House what I stated in it: you are a cheat and a swindler." For this the writer was ultimately called to the bar of the House, and made an humble apology, with many regrets for having "infringed upon the privileges of the House of Commons of Canada"; but, in regard to the note, he said he was advised and believed that the act did not constitute a breach of the privileges aforesaid, not having been committed within the House, and not referring to any action of the member in his Parliamentary capacity. Still, if the House thought otherwise, he would apologize for that, too. The House did pronounce his spoken words a breach of privilege, but put up with his apology, not deeming it prudent to contest the point raised as to their jurisdiction over his "libellous and defamatory" communication.

—A correspondent writes:

"Hundreds of newspapers in recent obituaries of the late George P. Marsh give as the day of his birth the *seventeenth* of March. Their authorities, if we asked for them, would be found to be 'Appleton's Cyclopædia' in all editions, or 'Chambers' Cyclopædia,' or Cooper's 'Men of the Time,' or Drake's 'Dictionary of American Biography,' or other similar works, which are echoes of Appleton. In 'Johnson's Universal Cyclopædia' and Lanman's 'Biographical Annals of the United States Civil Service,' however, Mr. Marsh's birthday is set down, not as the seventeenth, but as the *fifteenth* of March; and the true date is the fifteenth. During the winter of 1844-5, Mr. Marsh and family being in

Washington, it was my fortune to occupy his house in Burlington. His family Bible was daily before me, and I chanced to examine the family record, and noticed that his birth was entered as having occurred on the fifteenth of March. That date arrested my attention, and clung to my memory all the more because it was my own birthday. More-over, I had already long kept a commonplace book, and under the heading of March 15 I then wrote, 'G. P. Marsh, born 1801.' The entry is now before my eyes. As Mr. Marsh's Bible may have perished, or may be now in Rome, its testimony regarding the first fact in his life will be welcome to those who have observed the conflict of biographical authorities."

—Mr. Quaritch has just issued a prospectus of an edition, to be published by subscription, of 'The Republic of Cicero,' reprinted from the edition of Cardinal Mai, with English translation and notes, by G. G. Hardingham, of the Middle Temple. This book, if well done, would be welcome undoubtedly to many readers, and especially to those whose old copies of Cicero's works do not include the important portions of this treatise discovered by Mai. The prospectus, however, opens with a curious misstatement, which it is surprising that Mr. Quaritch, with his wide acquaintance with books, could have let pass. The first sentence asserts that "the Latin text has never yet been published by the English press." This is an error. We have before us a copy of the Latin text printed and published in London in 1823—a reprint of Mai's edition of the year before, with his preface and notes. It contains a plate representing the nine persons who took part in the dialogue, and a facsimile of the Vatican palimpsest, both reproduced from Mai's edition. It forms a well-printed octavo volume of lvi. and 349 pages, and was published by J. Mawman.

—A specimen page of text and of translation accompanies the prospectus, and we make bold to say that this is a most creditable proceeding, for no one can read Mr. Hardingham's version of this selected passage without an instant conclusion that his work is worthless, and that the schoolboy who should submit such a translation would justly deserve a flogging, or, in modern phrase, "to be dropped." His blunders render the whole meaning unintelligible. The true sequence of thought is destroyed, and the significance of special phrases lost. We can give but brief examples, but they will be sufficient. Cicero, speaking (i. § 44) of the rise of a popular tyrant, describes him as "audax, impurus, consectans proterve bene sæpe de re publica meritos," which Mr. Hardingham renders: "Audacious and wicked men often cutting to pieces those who have deserved well of their country." In the next section, which treats of a mixed form of government, occurs the following sentence: "Placet enim esse quiddam in re publica præstans et regale, esse aliud auctoritate principum partitum ac tributum; esse quasdam res servatas iudicio voluntatique multitudinis," which may be freely rendered: "It seems well that something should exist in the state preëminent and royal; that something should be determined by the authority of the chief men, and that certain other things should be reserved for the judgment and will of the multitude." Of this simple statement Mr. Hardingham makes the following complex one: "For it is best that there should be some certain person presiding over public affairs and representing regal state; another over the division of lands and collection of tribute, taxes, and the appropriation of the revenue, to be under the authority of the princes; and those pertaining to servitude, rights, and duties to be by the judgment and will of the people." We have nothing to add save that Mr. Quaritch ought to withdraw his prospectus and beg the pardon of those correspondents to whom he has sent it.

—Mr. Francis Galton has in a recent number of *Nature* (July 6) applied his method of "composite portraits" (see *Nature*, May 23, 1878) to the solution of the question why artists represent running horses in positions which instantaneous photography shows it to be impossible for them to assume. Taking the attitudes of the galloping horse, as represented in one of Muybridge's photographs, he finds that a certain group of successive positions may be selected in which the hind feet are, in relation to the body, comparatively motionless and extended to the rear, while the fore feet are rapidly altering their position. A second group may be selected in which these conditions are reversed, the fore legs being free from the ground and extended to the front. Now, in observing a running horse it is difficult to watch closely both the fore and hind legs of the animal simultaneously. Hence a mental image of the moving horse seems to be formed by combining the images of the fore and hind legs in those positions in which they most distinctly impress the retina (that is, in the positions in which their motion is slowest), without any regard to the fact that these positions are not assumed synchronously by the two pairs of legs. It is accordingly found that a composite picture formed by combining the forequarters of the horses in the second with the hindquarters of those in the first of the above-mentioned groups is not at all unlike the conventional figure of the running horse. The same writer has also (*Nature*, June 13) suggested a simple way in which the eye can verify the results of instantaneous photography. This consists in viewing the moving object through a hole in a screen behind which a second screen with a slit in it is rapidly moved by a spring. At the instant when the slit is opposite the hole the moving object is seen, and, as it is only visible during a small fraction of a second, it, of course, appears stationary. In this way views can be obtained of galloping horses similar to those with which Muybridge's photographs have made us familiar.

—Some six years ago Mr. Alfred Marks, known to our readers as the Secretary of the Society for Photographing Relics of Old London, was led to undertake a study of the St. Anne of Leonardo da Vinci. A cartoon of this subject (otherwise known as the "Holy Family") from the master's own hand is in the possession of the Royal Academy, while the Louvre possesses his painting of St. Anne and the Virgin; and it would appear from Mr. Marks's researches that Vasari, in describing the cartoon of St. Anne executed for the Servite monks of Florence, confounded these two designs. In a paper lately read before the Royal Society of Literature, Mr. Marks exhibited photographs of a number of copies or adaptations of the Louvre composition, and named others, in all some twenty; whereas of the Royal Academy's cartoon no duplicate is known. He concluded that it "represented an early stage in the development of an idea which found final expression in a work resembling the Louvre picture." He argued that it could not possibly have been executed under the circumstances mentioned by Vasari, and was disposed to identify it with one mentioned by Lomazzo as being in the possession of Aurelio Luini. It reached England in 1760, and turned up in the Royal Academy somewhat mysteriously, in 1791. The place and date of its production Mr. Marks would make Milan before the fall, in 1500, of Lodovico Sforza.

—Theological science has been so completely and so rapidly changed by the investigations of the past fifty years, that none but specialists in it can keep pace with its progress. The active clergyman and the educated layman must depend for their information upon encyclopædic

works of one sort or another. It is to precisely these classes that a new 'Handbuch der theologischen Wissenschaften in encyclopädischer Darstellung' is addressed. Its arrangement is in the form of separate treatises on the accepted topics which go to make up the whole volume of theological science. The editor, Professor Otto Zöckler, of Greifswald, promises the completion of the whole work, in three volumes, before Christmas, 1883. The first half of volume i., which has already appeared (New York: B. Westermann & Co.), contains the general introduction and the beginning of the Biblical Exegesis; this subject will be completed in the second half-volume. Volume ii. will contain the history of the Church and the first part of Systematic Theology, and volume iii., Ethics and Practical Theology. The names of the authors of these several treatises, among which are those of Grau of Königsberg, Harnack of Dorpat, Cremer of Greifswald, and Luthardt of Leipzig, are a guarantee that while this traditional and unsatisfactory division of topics has been adhered to, the treatment will be based upon the latest results in all departments of inquiry. The tone of the whole will be conservative and defensive as against all assaults of unbelief. Copious references to books add very greatly to the value of each essay.

—The *Preussische Jahrbücher* of Berlin in the June number publishes an excellent article on the Panama Canal Question—viz., "Die rechtliche und politische Seite der Panama-Canal-Frage," by Dr. Rudolf Schleiden, from 1853 to 1864 Hanseatic Minister-Resident in Washington, and one of the most learned and accomplished German writers on public European and on international law. The author, having witnessed the negotiations following the Clayton-Bulwer Treaty at our seat of government, and being personally acquainted with the majority of the diplomatists and statesmen who have had to deal with the Central American question, gives a clear and exhaustive synopsis of the several stages of the proceedings, and throws much new and important light on the American and English policy in that quarter. This valuable essay, comprising only sixty-six pages in octavo, should be translated in order to make it accessible to the English-reading public.

—The disagreement of doctors is proverbial. It extends, apparently, even to Ph.D's. The general public do not care much how Greek is pronounced; still, a few old college graduates would be glad to have practice universally agreed upon, so that they should not always feel at sea when pronouncing the name of a Greek hero or goddess. But it is not to be. Hardly has a generation with much difficulty learned to say for Δημήτηρ, not Dēmētēr, but Daymaytayr, and for Ἀθηνᾶ, not Athēnē, but Athaynay, and for Φέρητε, not fērētē, but fērāytē, when M. Schweisthal, pupil of the École Pratique des Hautes-Études, proposes in his 'Essai sur la valeur phonétique de l'alphabet latin' (Paris: Leroux, 1882) to change all this, and pronounce Dēmētēr, Athēnē, fayretay; and the *Revue Critique* says that he is right. The new Latin pronunciation was established more lately than the last-but-one Greek, as we suppose we must call it. The time for reaction against it has not yet come, but we live in dread of learning some day that Kikero is not Siseronian, and that Waregeel was not, after all, the protégé of Aogooostoes.

#### THE JOURNALS OF CAROLINE FOX.

Caroline Fox: Her Journals and Letters. Edited by Horace N. Pym. 2 vols. London: Smith, Elder & Co.; New York: Harper & Bros.

THESE delightful 'Journals' are full of interest

on two different accounts. Their first and most obvious charm is that they contain not exactly pictures, but faint outlines and sketches of Mill, Carlyle, Hartley, Coleridge, Sterling, and others who have left more or less mark upon their age, and of whom every one would wish to know more than we are ever likely to know. Readers, however, who take them up on account of the references which they contain to celebrated characters ought to be warned at once that Miss Fox, who put down her notes and memoranda simply for her own use, or the use of her friends, and never wrote a word which was meant to catch the public eye, was, with all her rare gifts and graces, not endowed with that peculiar talent which enabled writers like Miss Burney or Boswell to give to the scenes and conversations of every-day life a kind of dramatic vividness. Caroline Fox was certainly not a literary artist; she was not even a born reporter. There is not throughout her pages a single vivid version of any of the numerous conversations in which she took so keen an interest. She does not, for the most part, tell us what her friends said, but (a quite different thing) what were the topics they talked about. Her literary deficiencies are, however, more than compensated for by the charm which her own nature exerted over all the persons with whom she came in contact. At Penjerrick every one was at his best. The sympathetic and religious side of John Mill's character developed itself freely as in a congenial atmosphere. Carlyle seems to have got free for a moment from the tendency to identify the disorder of his own digestion with the general disorder and unsatisfactoriness of the world. Mrs. Carlyle and her husband are seen in a gayer, and certainly more amiable, aspect than that in which they have been represented to the world in some recent publications. "She plays all manner of tricks on her husband, telling wonderful stories of him in his presence, founded almost solely on her bright imagination; he, poor man, panting for an opportunity to stuff in a negation, but all to no purpose. Having cut him up sufficiently, she would clear the course. They are a very happy pair." In the company of Caroline Fox and of her family, John Sterling poured out all the stream of his bright and easily-flowing thoughts. Every one, in short, felt that Penjerrick was the home of love, goodness, and life, and accordingly brought forth all that was bright and lovable in his own character.

Hence we see Sterling in Caroline Fox's 'Journals' for the first time as he really was, and feel that we understand the answer to what must be to many people rather a puzzling riddle. What was it that made him the darling or the hero of friends in many ways so much more remarkable than himself? Hare wrote one life of him, Carlyle wrote a second, John Mill was all but writing a third; yet none of Sterling's friends could have maintained, or did maintain, that in his short existence he did any work of permanent importance. No one who looks at the writings which he has left, and which, unfortunately for his reputation, have been published, can maintain that he was a man of first-rate ability, or that he was a person of anything like genius. It were simply ridiculous to put him in the same line with Mill or Carlyle. Yet for all this he excited not only affection, but warm admiration, in the minds of friends who ought to have been no mean judges of character. The power of doing this is just as much a talent or a capacity as any other endowment, and the problem to be solved is, What was the "something" about Sterling which gave him his peculiar attractiveness? Any one of the sketches of Sterling's conversation given by Caroline Fox goes a good way to explain the character of the fascination



which he exercised over his friends. Take this passage, which is merely one out of a score :

"Sterling came and walked with us to Penance Cave on a day as brilliant as his own imagination. Some of our subjects were the doctrine of Providential interference and the efficacy of prayer as involved in this question. His view of prayer is that you have no right to pray for any outward manifestations of Divine favor, but for more conformity of heart to God, and more desire after the imitation of Christ. He would not, however, dogmatize on this subject, but would that every one should act in this matter (as in every other) according to conscience. He views sincerity as the grand point, and a sincere, however erroneous, search after truth will be reviewed with indulgence by the Father of spirits. Spinoza is an illustrious example—a truly good, conscientious, honest man, who recognized a Deity in everything around him, but omitted in his system the idea of a presiding and creating God."

Now, the notable point in this version, or abstract, of Sterling's talk—and the same thing holds true of all Caroline Fox's reports of his conversations—is that it does not contain a trace of the "brilliant imagination" attributed to him by his friends. But it does show that he possessed certain qualities which account for the admiration he excited among those who loved him. He was clearly a man intensely interested in all the moral and religious questions of the time. He was, we take it, full of life. He easily received and reproduced the ideas which, as the expression goes, were "in the air." He shared to the full the reaction against the dogmatism which, under different forms, had characterized the orthodoxy no less than the unorthodoxy of the eighteenth century. He was one of the earliest of "sympathetic" talkers and writers who have swayed public opinion during the last forty years. He was one of the first of that class of men, much more numerous now than in 1840, who found it impossible to remain clergymen, and yet cherished feelings and aspirations very different from those which have marked "infidels" of the type, say, of James Mill. He had ceased to belong to the Church, yet he was in many ways, in character, a clergyman. There is something, in fact, almost humorous in his habit of laying down the law or dogmatizing upon matters about which he could have known no more than other people—that is to say, very little at all. There was nothing on which he had not a view, and his views were, we doubt not, expressed with the fervor of sympathy and belief, and in vivid if not in eloquent language. When to all this we add that Sterling died young, so as to leave to the imagination of his friends the power of picturing to themselves all that he might have accomplished had his life been lengthened, we can well understand why he left behind him not only affectionate regrets, which his loveliness undoubtedly deserved, but also a reputation for something like genius, to which he assuredly had no claim. "Whom the gods love die young," and the greatest blessing of youthful death is to leave with those who loved one the illusions still possible as long as experience has not given the lie to the expectations of affection. John Mill, Thackeray, and Carlyle were all, we believe, of Sterling's circle. Each of these men has shown the world what he could do, and has left his mark on the age. But, having had the opportunity of showing what they could do, they have of necessity also betrayed the limits of their powers, and did not, we suspect, leave among such friends as survived them anything like the feeling of loving admiration which surrounded with a halo the memory of Sterling.

However this may be, it is from Caroline Fox's 'Journals,' far more surely than from either the prosaic memoir of Hare or the unsatisfactory life by Carlyle, that candid readers will

obtain a true picture of a man whose chief claim to be remembered lies in the strangeness of his having obtained posthumous fame without having produced any of the works, or done any of the acts, by which a place is generally gained in the memory of the world. We have purposely insisted upon the light thrown by Caroline Fox on his character, because this affords a striking illustration of the feature in her 'Journals' which will be found of most interest by ordinary readers. Of the hundreds who have read or will read them, by far the greater number will, naturally enough, value them because of the information they give us about men such as Mill and Carlyle. A limited body of more thoughtful students will perhaps find that Caroline Fox's own character is of more interest than that even of the most celebrated among the men who enjoyed her friendship. Persons who feel in this way will regret that for once the writer of a diary, and a woman whose whole soul must have been occupied with religious thoughts and feelings, seems to have been too little of an egotist to care to record much about herself. You feel Caroline Fox's charm not from anything she writes about herself, but from the way in which her nature elicited the love and confidence of all who came across her. Nor can you separate the writer of the 'Journals' from the circle in which she lived. Her father, her brother, her sister—all form part with herself of the home at Penjerrick. Quakerism was there seen in its most attractive aspect, and not for the first time won the sympathy of men who, like Mill, had but little belief in the doctrines either of Quakerism or of any other religious creed.

Indeed, the second source of interest possessed by this work lies in the thoughts which it suggests as to the relation between Quakerism and modern life. There is in this matter something strange, not to say paradoxical. In its origin, Quakerism appeared to be one of the wildest developments of the spiritual turmoil generated by the religious contests of the seventeenth century. To Cromwell, Baxter, or Bunyan, George Fox and his followers must have seemed fanatics whose eccentricities and errors brought discredit on the cause of Puritanism. Cromwell's statesmanlike largeness of mind might warn him that Quakers were no subjects for persecution or punishment; but Cromwell, or any man of Cromwell's time, would have utterly disbelieved a prophet who had foretold that the disciples of George Fox were the only Puritan sect who would be able to ally themselves with the thoughts, and to a certain extent to acquire the sympathy and share the feelings, of the approaching eighteenth century. Yet this has in fact been the case. The Calvinism of the Protector and of Bunyan is, for practical purposes, a thing of the past. Quakerism may be about to perish as a special creed; but, if it should perish, it will not have lived without having produced a permanent effect on English thought and feeling. Moreover, once and again, and notably in the case of Mill and Voltaire, Quakerism has been proved to have for men who would scarcely call themselves Christians an attraction hardly possessed by any other form of Christianity. As you consider the relation between John Mill and the "Friends" at Penjerrick, you see, to a certain extent, in a particular case, the explanation of a more general phenomenon. Quakerism had three or four points of contact or of alliance with the general spirit of the eighteenth century. A Quaker might believe—as, no doubt, many Quakers have believed—most of the dogmas of orthodox Protestantism; but every one can see at a glance that no dogma is an essential part of Quakerism in the same way in which certain doctrines or dogmas are essential parts of Calvinism or of

Roman Catholicism. A Deist, a Freethinker, or a Quaker could, on different grounds, and no doubt in a somewhat different sense, agree in the belief that dogmas were not of the essence of religion. Quakerism, again, was a creed of toleration. We have almost forgotten the extent to which the philosophic and political movement of the eighteenth century was a reaction and protest against religious persecution. On this point Voltaire was not only in name, but in reality, in perfect sympathy with every Quaker. Freedom from the spirit of dogma, and the religious belief in toleration, made it specially easy for Quakers to accept the results of scientific inquiry. Robert Wroe Fox (Caroline Fox's father) was an investigator respected and admired by the leading scientific men of his day. Penjerrick was not the place where any voice would be raised to check inquiries into the secrets of nature. This, it must be remembered, meant a good deal more in 1835 than in 1882. Quakerism, lastly, was from the first intimately allied with humanity, and philanthropy was the real religion of the eighteenth century.

In this, more than in any other single point, lay the difference between Quakerism and Calvinistic Puritanism. The Puritans, Macaulay has taught the world, denounced bear-baiting, not because it gave pain to the bear, but because it gave pleasure to the spectators. The dictum goes a good deal nearer the truth than most epigrams. It at any rate hits one of the weak points of a creed as noble and sincere as that which inspired the 'Pilgrim's Progress.' The best of Calvinists were too much impressed both with the depravity of human nature and with the terrors of the world to come to cultivate with effect virtues, like "humanity," which, as the very name imports, are developments of the good side of man's character, or to devote themselves to the practical improvement of the world as it exists. From this fault Quakerism was free, and could therefore easily ally itself with philosophic philanthropy, which aimed at the improvement of mankind, and believed with only too confident a faith in the perfectibility of human nature. Quakerism, in short, developed exactly those features of Christianity which suit the spirit of an age of peace, of industry, and of humanity. Houses like Penjerrick were to men like Mill spiritual resting-places, where they could see Christian sentiment and faith in full sympathy with the objects aimed at by enlightened philanthropy.

Respect for truth, nevertheless, requires that we should note the fact that the paradox of Quakerism does not end with the fact of the alliance between the teaching of George Fox and the philanthropy of the eighteenth century. No one can, we think, doubt that Quakerism does not promise to become the creed of the future. Many of its peculiar tenets have assuredly been imbibed by men who could never be called Quakers. Even while the bombardment of Alexandria is, so to speak, ringing in our ears, every one who cares to reflect will admit that in England the spirit of moral Quakerism is making way among statesmen. The industrial states of the world are slowly, but surely, throwing off the liking for war derived from what may be termed military ages. But for all this, it is pretty certain that Quakerism will find difficulty in holding its own as a religious creed. Of the theological or anti-theological beliefs which may menace Quakerism, this is scarcely the place to speak. A fact more easy to deal with is, that Quakerism depends for its very existence on a condition of things which could not be produced by a body of men who honestly practised the doctrines avowed by the Society of Friends. Civilized society rests at bottom on force. You may avoid wars, but you

could never be at peace unless you kept up an army; and those who fancy they would be willing to disband the Army and the Navy hardly imagine that we could dispense with the police. Yet a constable is little else than a soldier in plain clothes. The early Christians, we shall be told, would not take part in war and lived in a spirit of Quakerism. The fact is doubtful; but were the fact granted, one may well point out that the *pax Romana* secured by the arms of Rome was almost a necessary condition for the growth and development of the early Christian Church. This account of a conversation between Caroline Fox and F. D. Maurice is at least worth the careful consideration of those who believe that a civilization built up by war, and depending for its existence on the use of force, will, or can, ultimately adopt the whole doctrine of Quakerism:

"Stumbled somehow on war. 'Won't the world some day come to think with us?' quoth I. 'They will come to think rightly,' was his reply, 'no doubt, but perhaps very differently to you or I.' 'But would any nation dare to attack another which resolves under no circumstances to do them anything but kindness?' 'Well, I find that whenever I am most right, I may always expect to be most bullied, and this, I suppose, will go on; it brings home to one very strongly the meaning of the words, 'Woe unto you when all men speak well of you.'"

#### RECENT POETRY.

AN American stage-manager said, the other day, that all the manuscript plays offered to him might be classified as translations, imitations, or nightmares. To begin our recent poetry with the nightmare class, we must give the first place to 'Cagliostro: A Dramatic Poem in Five Acts,' by Edward Doyle (New York: W. B. Smith & Co.). Here is a book written apparently with a serious purpose, and seriously dedicated by the author to his two sisters. It seems to be designed to expose spiritualism, but its wildness is so extreme as to make even spiritualist literature seem sane. To call it a nightmare is, after all, flattery; it seems like a hundred pages of *delirium tremens*. Perhaps the least crazy thing about it is the list of *dramatis personae*, and yet this begins as follows:

"Judge Guilderbury—An Abraham or Jephthah.  
Col. Geo. Guilderbury—A logical Materialist.  
Salvation Plover—Gen. Willard's personator.  
Dr. Empedocles Squigginson—A Medium and Builder of the New Motor, the Physical Savior of the Race.  
Alfred Templeton—A Clergyman.  
Cagliostro—The Inspirer of the New Motor and the Second Coming, and the Spirit of John Keats.  
Patsy—An unprogressed Spirit and the Bishop."

—and so on. There is not much choice in the scenes, but the following perhaps is as lively as any. It must be explained that *Patsy*, here the chief performer, is based upon a spirit described in Rev. Charles Beecher's book—one who "told Professor Phelps that he was in hell and liked pumpkin-pie" (p. 41). This delicate Ariel disports himself as follows, amid a circle of the principal people in the play:

"Dr. Spirit, convince him—gently!  
Judge (whiningly). A big idiot.  
Indeed! Was not the chair upon your head,  
The elbow-plucking, and my fall enough?  
Col. (releasing Doctor, and turning on Judge).  
Drunk! crazy! trash! (Patsy blows a fish-horn at the Colonel's ear, and around his neck puts a string of bull-frogs.)  
Judge. Oh!  
Col. You damned juggler! making  
Of me a target? (Rushes at Doctor, but stops,  
having flour dashed into his face by Patsy, who  
then wipes it off with a blacking-brush.)  
Judge. Blinded, like Saint Paul,  
By lightning.  
Plover. Flour, Judge. Colonel, give it up.  
You cannot hold the cramping battery out.  
(Patsy flings torpedoes at the Colonel's feet.)

Col. Hell and damnation! If all Presidents—  
(Pinched on shoulders and legs alternately by  
Patsy, who rises to a great height, drops, and  
sometimes plays dog. The Colonel's rubbing and  
snatching with both hands on all sides become  
desperate, his language more and more emphatic.  
Plover and the Judge, in whose faces Patsy occa-  
sionally flings beans, step about lively, and  
the Doctor, folding his arms, smiles.)  
All Senators—all Representatives—  
Chief Justices, with their associates—  
Dr. He goes a-crabbing with two bursted nets." (Pp. 46-7.)

On the whole, if there is any one who wishes to test for an hour what De Quincey calls "the pains of opium" without any of its pleasures, it can be done very cheaply by the purchase of this little book.

It seems unkind to class among the nightmares a work entitled 'Abraham Lincoln, the Type of American Genius: an Historical Romance,' by Rufus Blanchard (New York: C. L. Woodward); but could the excellent President here named have lived to read his own obituary, he certainly would have extracted some fun from it. The book is an octavo volume of 150 pages, luxuriously printed. All but about twenty of these pages are devoted to the supposed preliminaries of his birth—these antecedents comprising a survey of American colonization, of the French and Indian wars, and of half-a-dozen related families. But, as the family names are never given, and as we know the performers only as Alfred and Sarah, William and William, jr., it is very difficult to trace the genealogies. The people also change their names a good deal, and there is generally an attending chorus of fairies. The leading hero is a typical New England youth, who goes West, leaving at home his first love, described as follows:

"Grace was a child but seven years old;  
Her hair was colored almost gold,  
And hung in many a velvet fold,  
With bluish ribbons neatly tied,  
Or curled above her forehead wide  
In cowlicks, one on either side.  
Her dimpled cheeks were faintly stained  
With mottlings like the lilies grained,  
Which nature's varied hand had trained" (p. 27).

This was the first love; but the second was an Indian girl, whose name alone seemed to promise domestic endearments that should be sweet and very prolonged. Her father was the chief Wabunsie:

"His daughter's name was Gheezhigneenwateen,  
The same who'd crossed Chicago's portage green—  
The Indian lassie spoken of before,  
Who, with her father, visited this shore  
To see the world, like any other belle,  
In trading marts where people buy and sell.  
In this respect, all belles are much the same,  
Of every nation and of every name" (p. 54).

The hero weds the Indian maid with the resounding name, and thenceforth this appellation flows as freely through the poem as if it were Helen or Mary. Perhaps the husband grows weary of pronouncing it, for he deserts his wife at last and weds another, who has no more sonorous name than Permilla: she is mentioned occasionally as "his distinguished wife Permilla." She is attended by supernatural visitants:

"And as she from the field withdrew,  
Ten thousand fairies round her flew:  
Unheard, unseen to mortal view,  
As round her way they hovered.

"Outside this group of flying fays,  
Two angels in the mystic maze  
In silence on Permilla gaze,  
As slowly she retired" (p. 123).

It is this Permilla who, if we rightly unravel the web of *dramatis personae*, is the ancestress and guardian angel of Abraham Lincoln; and the last twenty pages are devoted to his life and death. The author of the "historical romance" is Mr. Rufus Blanchard, who has also published (at Wheaton, Ill.) several works on the history of the Northwest.

We are not passing wholly out of the nightmare class when we mention 'Esther: a Romance,' by Charles De Kay (New York: D.

Appleton & Co.). We must own to finding it a very unattractive book, since it is not merely fatiguing, like the prolonged Eastern romances of Southey, but unites with this trait a certain unwholesomeness of flavor, not removed by an evident sincerity of purpose, this being evinced in the dedication, "to the great shade of Darwin and the lofty spirit of Emerson." The author asserts in his preface that "the volume, though Oriental in cast, is American in motive"; but this motive is hidden so deeply that it is rather difficult to find. The metre has a certain character of its own, the long, eight-lined stanzas being rather pleasingly relieved by a sort of tag or appendix of two short lines at the end of each, somewhat resembling those introduced by Halleck in each verse of "The Field of the Grounded Arms." It is fair to say that Mr. De Kay's long poems are less whimsical than his short ones, and that this volume is less wayward and more readable than its predecessor, 'The Vision of Nimrod'; and, possibly, the third vision which he promises—that of 'Abram'—may, like the third olive, create the required relish in the consumer.

But why cannot our American bards give us narrative poems which shall be attractive as well as imaginative, like the new volume of Irish legendary poems by Aubrey de Vere? There can be no more discouraging material, to the ordinary reader and in ordinary hands, than the old Irish traditions; they are thought as unpromising as Old-Testament themes or the legends on the American Indians. But in the hands of Aubrey de Vere they become at once heroic and graceful, full of striking deeds and tender and poetic fancies. 'The Foray of Queen Meave, and Other Legends of Ireland's Heroic Age' (London: Kegan Paul, Trench & Co.), is a volume which holds and enchants the reader, however incredulous as to the past glories of the Green Isle; and those who have looked with wonder upon the unprinted masses of early Irish literature in the library of Trinity College, Dublin, must be glad of anything which does justice to the spirit of an almost forgotten civilization. 'The Foray of Queen Meave' is no doubt the most powerful of these fragments; but "The Children of Lir" is the tenderest and most touching—a legend of four royal children, transformed for nine centuries into wild swans, and relieved from their doom only by the coming of St. Patrick, whose first converts they were. The same legend has been rendered into prose by Professor O'Curry, and other tales of the same class have been handled with well-known success by Sir Samuel Ferguson.

'The Book of the Dead,' by George H. Boker (Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co.), might almost have been classed among the nightmares in respect to its painful qualities. The author's aim seems to be to do for vengeance what Tenyson did for friendship and Petrarch for love; and he chants its various aspects through a hundred poems. But the effect of such a volume is to make it seem more dangerous to be a friend of Mr. Boker's than an enemy; for the nameless enemy does not suffer, while the book for the first time reveals to us that some one near and dear to Mr. Boker has been subject to grievous imputations. Is it not better to let those charges rest under death's seal of silence?

In 'A Prairie Idyl, and Other Poems' (Chicago: Jansen, McClurg & Co.), we find no such painful demonstrations, but an innocent tale marked by the great merit of local coloring. The author does not sing of the skylark, as even Mr. Aldrich did the other day, but his scenery and properties are all of the prairie. Why is it that, when thus faithful in regard to external nature, he should still have that habit which lends a false note to so much Western poetry,



and should give high-flown names to his personages? If he wishes to make a poem about croquet, it is very well; but why should not the performers be plain James and Anne, instead of Roland and Christabel? We note, also, that he has borrowed the title of a poem from one by "H. H." and has called it "Love's Largess." In 'A Red-Letter Day, and Other Poems,' by Lucius Harwood Foote (Boston: A. Williams & Co.), we have also some good local coloring, East and West, but this writer, too, gives us too much of Ginevra and Floribel. Tried by this same standard of local coloring—a standard which it is essential to apply to every national literature in its dawning—we find Mr. George Houghton's 'Niagara, and Other Poems' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.) far more attractive than his Norse epics; we find Harriet Paine's pretty and skillfully-imitated 'Bird-Songs of New England' (Boston: A. Williams & Co.) to outweigh a library of sonnets on the nightingale; and Mr. Chas. H. Phelps's little volume of 'Californian Verses' (San Francisco: The Californian Publishing Co.) to be worth many such labored poems on exotic themes as Mr. Nowlan's 'Eadburga, Queen of Wessex' (Boston: M. H. Keenan). Not that an American poet need confine himself to home material, but he shows a want of poetic instinct when he fails to recognize its value. When it comes to aboriginal Indian subjects, they are hard to deal with, no doubt, but Mrs. Martha Perry Lowe has certainly added new interest to Chief Joseph's oft-told tale by her vivid narrative, with its well-chosen illustrations ('The Story of Chief Joseph': Boston: D. Lothrop). Nor would we churlishly deprive young poets of those universal themes of passion which scarcely need a local setting; themes that are handled with some real feeling and with some strains savoring of affectionation in 'The Life of a Love, in Songs and Sonnets,' by N. M. Sedarté (New York). There is a good deal of Rossetti in this thin volume, but there is power and promise also. In 'From Daybreak to Twilight,' by Charlotte H. Coursen and Edith R. Crosby (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons), there is much true feeling, with a simplicity and smoothness that afford pleasure, even if they do not promise much more.

It is long since any volume by a wholly new poet has been marked by a single poem so strong and concentrated as "The King's Musketeer," in 'The Defence of the Bride, and Other Poems,' by Anne Katharine Green (New York: G. P. Putnam's Sons). The verses from which the volume takes its title have something of the same vigor, and their more sing-song measure might make them more attractive for recitation; but they are far more melodramatic and less original in plot. "The King's Musketeer" tells its story tersely and powerfully, and is as absolutely objective as Browning. The author's taste inclines to strong situations, based on the incidents of war, and her verses are rarely open to the charge of tameness. Nor are the verses of Mrs. Blake tame—'Poems by Mary E. Blake (M. E. B.): Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.—but they are quite unlike the dramatic and martial strains of Mrs. Green, being, indeed, mostly domestic and thoughtful, and celebrating the charms of children, especially, in a very wholesome and motherly way. There are some poems suggested by the War for the Union, also, which thoroughly represent the wife's and mother's side; and it would not be easy to find that aspect of the war more stirringly touched than in her "Waiting for the News." She is evidently a Roman Catholic, and her volume is a good refutation of the delusion of those who still think that to be Roman Catholic is necessarily to be un-American.

The volume of Bret Harte's collected 'Poetical

Works,' including the drama of the "Two Men of Sandy Bar" (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.), revives the yet unsettled problem of his place in literature, and makes the reader wonder, as he examines the thick volume, how much of commonplace can be permanently kept afloat by four or five strong and original poems. Most of the pages of this volume, read at a distance of some years from their first appearance, leave that bad taste in the mouth of which Charlotte Brontë complained in French novels; and the inclusion between the same covers of the heavy and vulgar drama leaves the memory of the reader filled to repletion with coarse and vicious personages, almost unrelieved by anything cleaner or more refined. And these repulsive figures are so dear to their author that they threaten to eclipse all the others he has created, and leave room for doubt whether his reputation in his own land will really be more solid and lasting than that of "Joaquin" Miller.

Among recent English publications, we note a dainty volume, 'Songs and Rhymes, English and French,' by Walter Herries Pollock (London: Remington & Co.). Mr. Pollock is the younger brother of Hon. Frederick Pollock, well known through his 'Spinoza' and 'Leading Cases'; and the poet himself is known as a journalist, and as the joint author of several volumes of fiction, whose authorship he shared with his accomplished mother, Lady Pollock. We are constrained to say that there is a stronger touch in his prose than in his poetry, the latter consisting mainly of agreeable *vers de société*, and rarely rising beyond that level. Yet there is certainly much of concentrated power in this brief dramatic summary:

#### "A CONQUEST."

"I found him openly wearing her token;  
I knew that her truth could never be broken;  
I laid my hand on the hilt of my sword;  
He did the same, and spoke not a word.  
I bade him confess his villainy;  
He smiled, and said: 'She gave it me.'  
We searched for seconds; they soon were found;  
They measured our swords and measured the ground;  
To save us they would not have uttered a breath;  
They were ready enough to help us to death.  
We fought in the midst of a wintry wood,  
Till the fair, white snow was red with his blood;  
But his was the victory, for, as he died,  
He swore by the rod that he had not lied" (p. 60).

A delightful book is 'A Garland from Greece,' by George Francis Armstrong, M.A. (London: Longmans, Green & Co.). It has in it more of the flavor of the Orient than any volume of poems since Lord Houghton's 'Palm Leaves.' Its author is one of two brothers—Irishmen, if we mistake not—who have published a good many volumes. A large part of the merit of this work lies in the choice of subjects, but the treatment is very vigorous, and the "Brigand of Parnassus" and "Last Sertie from Mesolonghi" are especially fresh and fine. There is a poem on "The Satyr" which was perhaps suggested by Maurice de Guérin's fine description of the Centaur, and is worthy to be read in connection with it. There is also one poem which is not of Greek origin, but has an extraordinary depth of analysis and emotion; it is entitled "Time the Healer."

But, after all, not one of these books of poetry, whether English or American, has the interest that attaches to the little volume which bears to us the last poems of Longfellow, 'In the Harbor; Ultima Thule—Part 2' (Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co.). This interest lies not so much in the total poetic contents of the book—for these, in truth, are very unequal—as in the few closing poems, grouped together as "personal." Scarcely ever in his whole series of publications has Mr. Longfellow brought us so near to himself. There is here a strength of touch and a meditative depth which make these closing sonnets a key to the very heart of the writer. "My Books" sets the poet face to face with the fact that his day of productive work is over; in

"Victor and Vanquished" he looks death itself in the eyes; and in the closing poem (dated January 17, 1882) he transfers his work to some bard of the future, in a strain as sweet and noble as ever closed the music of an earthly harp:

#### "POSSIBILITIES."

"Where are the poets unto whom belong  
The Olympian heights: whose singing shafts were sent  
Straight to the mark, and not from bow half bent,  
But with the utmost tension of the thong?  
Where are the stately argosies of song,  
Whose rushing keels made music as they went  
Sailing in search of some new continent,  
With all sail set, and steady wind and strong?  
Perchance there lives some dreamy boy, untaught  
In schools, some graduate of the field or street,  
Who shall become a master of the art,  
An admiral sailing the high seas of thought,  
Fearless and first, and steering with his fleet  
For lands not yet laid down in any chart."

#### ELLIS'S FIRST CHURCH IN BOSTON.

*History of the First Church in Boston, 1630-1880.* By Arthur E. Ellis. With an introduction by George E. Ellis. Illustrated. Boston: Hall & Whiting.

THIS work is the enlargement of a lecture pertaining to the celebration of the 250th anniversary of the organization of the First Church in Boston. An introduction, in the nature of an essay, by Rev. Dr. George E. Ellis, fills seventy-two pages, and treats of the founding of the Puritan church and the Puritan commonwealth, of the legal obligations binding together the church and the commonwealth, and of the social ties which were the bases of church government. Dr. Ellis is also to be credited with the direction and supervision of the entire work, "from beginning to end." Under such able direction, it could not be difficult for Mr. Arthur Ellis to produce an interesting book. Since its gathering in 1630, the First Church has had seventeen settled ministers. John Wilson, John Cotton, John Norton, John Davenport, James Allen, John Oxenbridge, Joshua Moody, John Bailey, Benjamin Wadsworth, Thomas Bridge, Thomas Foxcroft, Charles Chauncy, John Clarke, William Emerson, John L. Abbot, Nathaniel L. Frothingham, Rufus Ellis—all eminent for piety and learning, and some, in their day, the absolute controllers of the religious thought of New England—make up the shining roll of its pastors and teachers. The lives and actions of these ecclesiastics are described by Mr. Ellis with fair particularity. Necessarily, he has made use of the works of previous historians, such as Winthrop's Journal and Emerson's 'History of the First Church,' brought down to 1811, and for his indebtedness to these he makes acknowledgment without stint. The illustrations consist mainly of portraits of the clergymen (presumably of all procurable), and views and plans of the notable church buildings.

The first meeting house of the society, erected in 1632, was on the plot of ground now covered by "Brazer's Building" in State Street. Its cost, with a parsonage, is set down at £120. In 1640 the house had become too small for the accommodation of the congregation, and a new one was put up on the lot where the "Rogers Building" now stands, in Washington Street, the actual cost being £1,000. This was destroyed by a fire "occasioned by the carelessness and intemperance of a strange woman" in 1711, for half a century afterward called the "great fire," as it swept away the finest part of Boston. From the ashes of the second church grew the famous "Brick," finished for occupancy in 1713 at an outlay of £3,849 8s. 1d. Nearly a century later (in 1808) the society removed to the corner of Summer and Chauncy Streets, and once again, in 1868, to the corner of Berkeley and Marlborough Streets; the existing edifice, the charges upon which amounted to \$325,000, being justly regarded as one of the sightliest in the city.

Very serious were the controversies which disturbed the church through the first fifty years of its existence. Matters which, at this time, would not furnish an item for a busy newspaper reporter, to the eyes of the fathers of the colony assumed an appearance of awful importance. The Hutchinson controversy, resulting in the excommunication and banishment of several of the leading members of the church, serves to make up one of the most interesting chapters in the history of the Massachusetts colony. It shook Church and State to their very foundations; and yet, when one has read everything that has been written about it, he may still be wholly in the dark regarding what it was all about.

Only one case of witchcraft is recorded as occurring within the First Church. In 1657 Mrs. Anne Hibbins was tried, condemned, and executed for this crime. She was the widow of William Hibbins, one of the most serviceable magistrates of the colony. Mr. Norton, her minister, is reported to have said that she "was hanged for a witch only for having more wit than her neighbors; she having unhappily guessed that two of her persecutors, whom she saw talking in the street, were talking of her, which, proving true, cost her her life." All Mr. Norton's efforts to save the life of the poor woman were unavailing. At a later day Mr. Moodey appears to have met with some creditable success in setting free two accused Salem witches. Philip English, a worthy merchant, and his wife, an amiable, well-bred woman, inhabitants of Salem, were accused of witchcraft and lodged in the jail there, but for some reason or another were afterward removed to the Boston jail. The rest of the story is thus told by Mr. Ellis:

"Moodey was in Boston at the time, and determined to set them free. With this purpose in mind, he invited them to the church, and preached from the text: 'When they shall persecute you in one city, flee to another.' Following up his sermon with some wholesome advice of a more private nature, he finally induced them to make good their escape. The service which Moodey performed on this occasion was gratefully remembered by the descendants of English in after days, but at the time, so great was the displeasure which his conduct created, that it is said to have caused his removal from Boston back to Portsmouth."

Such evidences of "church discipline" as are afforded by the records "are fitly left where they are, perhaps in the interests of historical fidelity claiming a right to be preserved in manuscript, but with no warrant to be reproduced in print." We do not question the propriety of keeping out of print the record evidence of "grievous lapses from decorum and morality," and yet when, some pages further on, we read that from 1653 to 1656 there were "three males excommunicated for the sins of drunkenness and adultery," we can but wonder what stories the records could tell that must be "fitly left where they are."

A lesson in political economy may be gathered from the case of Robert Keayne, a merchant of wealth and position, the founder and first commander of the Ancient and Honorable Artillery Company. Keayne was "admonished by our pastor for selling his wares at excessive rates, to the dishonor of God's name, the offence of the General Court, and the public scandal of the country." This was an occurrence of 1639. Mr. Keayne had been fined by the deputies £200, and by the magistrates £100, but the last sum only was paid. When brought before the church for admonishment—(some of the members were urgent for his excommunication)—Mr. Keayne set up a partial defence, which gave Mr. Cotton an opportunity to expose the "false principles," and to give some "rules for trading" applicable thereto. Among the "false principles" we find:

"1. That a man might sell as dear as he can,

and buy as cheap as he can. 2. If a man lose by casualty of sea in some of his commodities, he may raise the price of the rest. 3. That he may sell as he bought, though he paid too dear, and though the commodity be fallen. 4. That as a man may take the advantage of his own skill or ability, so he may of another's ignorance or necessity."

And these were the "rules for trading":

"1. A man may not sell above the current price—i.e., such a price as is usual in the time and place, and as another, who knows the worth of the commodity, would give for it, if he wanted it; as that is called current money which every man will take. 2. When a man loseth in his commodity for want of skill, he must look at it as his own fault or cross, and therefore must not lay it upon another. 3. Where a man loseth by casualty of sea, or, etc., it is a loss cast upon himself by providence, and he may not ease himself of it by casting it upon another; for so a man should seem to provide against all providences, that he should never lose; but where there is a scarcity of the commodity, then men may raise their price; for now it is a hand of God upon the commodity, and not the person. 4. A man may not ask any more for his commodity than his selling price, as Ephron to Abraham, the land is worth thus much."

Mr. Ellis's view of the noted persecution of sectaries—Quakers, Baptists, etc.—is not an impartial one. He presents it as follows:

"The form of government attempted to be established by the colonists recognized not only the right, but the obligation, to ward off 'erratic spirits.' The laws of the colony were framed so as to keep 'police order' in religion. They recognized no distinction, save in kind, between religious and civil offences. In either case the offender might be fined, imprisoned, banished, whipped, put in the stocks, or hung. That our fathers made prompt use of these means of enforcing discipline, the records will amply testify. No punishment was too severe for the religious offender. They were especially violent in their opposition to the Quakers and Baptists. We have seen how far his zeal in this direction carried Norton. He was instrumental in, if not directly responsible for, the execution of the Quakers on Boston Common, through the violence of his attack on what he called their blasphemous beliefs. But while we do not defend the course they pursued, we must be careful not to judge men like Norton too hastily. Harsh as their conduct was, we generally find some excuse for it in the extremely exasperating behavior of those with whom they had to deal. The Quaker spirit of that day was very different from the temper of the modern Friend. Those who were called Quakers then would scarcely be recognized by that name to-day. Their nature was aggressive, and they courted persecution. Some of them reviled the magistrates, calling them 'just asses'; and others, under pretence of prophesying, appeared in public without clothing, or simply wrapped in sheets, with their faces smeared with black paint, like demons denouncing direful judgments on the colony. Such exhibitions were dangerous as well as repulsive, and well calculated to shock the nerves of sensitive people. The perpetrators had to be put down. If those who performed the task betrayed any undue zeal, we must bear in mind the perversity they encountered and the strict line of conduct they felt bound to pursue in dealing with it."

In how different a vein writes the Rev. William Emerson ('Historical Sketch of the First Church') when dealing with the same subject. He finds the persecutions "altogether unjustifiable on any principle of the Gospel or of common humanity. . . . The most unrighteous laws stared them [the Baptists] in the face; and the most villainous conduct was secretly practised to their mischief. This treatment of the Baptists was comparatively trivial to what the poor Quakers endured. They were subjects of reproach, scorn, buffeting, scourges, torture, and death. They were stripped of the clothes they wore, and robbed of the beds whereon they lay." Mr. Ellis says that "the perpetrators had to be put down." The perpetrators of what? Of calling the magistrates "just asses"? or appearing "like demons denouncing direful judgments on the colony"? The "dangerous and repulsive" exhibitions are

mentioned by Mr. Ellis too indefinitely for direct contradiction. If they happened at all, they were the happenings of a time subsequent to the hanging of the Quakers, and subsequent to the death of John Norton. And we nowhere can find evidence that Norton was "directly responsible for the execution of the Quakers on Boston Common," or that he was "instrumental" to a greater degree than his fellow-clergymen, the magistrates, and the chief people. The powers had decreed that the Quakers "must be put down," and the cruel laws were passed and cruel punishments inflicted before the publication of Norton's 'Heart of New England Rent,' to which Mr. Ellis evidently refers when saying, "We have seen how far his zeal in this direction carried Norton." Wilson and Mitchell were even more violent than Norton "in their opposition to the Quakers."

Is it true that "the Quaker spirit of that day was very different from the temper of the modern Friend"? The question will admit of argument. It is mentioned as an interesting fact, and "highly creditable to the Christian temper of the Quakers of Dublin and vicinity, that, forgetful of injuries, they contributed liberally to the relief of the inhabitants of New England at a period of great public distress" (Mass. Historical Society Collections, 4th series, vol. viii., p. 56). In Increase Mather's diary the arrival of the vessel "sent by the Quakers in Dublin for those that were impoverished by the war here," is mentioned under the date of November 25, 1676. Another interesting fact, not to be overlooked here, is that at that very time the persecution of the Friends in New England was rigorously pursued. In 1677—to be particular, on the 4th of July—nine men and three women (Quakers) were arrested and whipped for no other cause than that of engaging in religious devotions at their ordinary place of meeting. Our local histories furnish convincing evidence that the "Quaker spirit of that day" was very similar to the "temper of the modern Friend"—that it was charitable and forgiving, even to an extreme degree.

From strict Calvinism the First Church gradually developed into Unitarianism, but the change was wrought without noticeable disturbance, and in these latter days it has enjoyed external as well as internal peace, and has taken the lead in many charitable works that greatly redound to the credit of the city. "Another century is yet before it."

*Three in Norway.* By Two of Them. Philadelphia: Porter & Coates.

THE incidents of a ten-weeks' fishing and shooting expedition are rather amusingly told in the neat volume before us, and every lover of camping-out life must delight in following the three young Englishmen to the Jotun-fjeld. In this wild and picturesque region they pitched their tent by lake Gjendin, some 3,000 feet above the sea, surrounded by the glaciers of the grandest mountains in Norway, and were only driven from their sport by the approach of winter, early in September. The trout-fishing in the lake and its outlet, the river Gjendinoset, was all that could be desired, and was particularly excellent at the time of the advent of the "Gjende-fly," an insect evidently more agreeable to the fish than to man, if we may believe the following description:

"The Gjende-fly has come, and he is only a wretched little black beast, like a very small, unenterprising, common or garden house-fly of Great Britain. He cannot fly decently; he is apparently devoid of sense; he has no moral, physical, or intellectual attributes for which a human being can learn to respect or love him; but—he can crawl. If he alights on the water,



it never occurs to him to rise again, and he allows the trout, mad with the excitement of a fortnight's prospective gluttony, to scoop him down their capacious throats by companies. If he enters your mouth, which he does with a numerous retinue every time you open it, retreat from that untenable position is the very last thing he would think of; and with what may be a gleam of momentary intelligence he seems desirous of still further increasing his knowledge of the rest of your interior arrangements."

"If any one stuck up a rod near the river, in two minutes it looked like a black fir pole with a bunch on the top; and John, who is a man of great entomological knowledge, spent some time in studying this phenomenon. He reported that the flies crawled up for fun, intending to jump off the top ring, but when they got up it was so much higher than they expected that they were all afraid to try, and those at the bottom and half-way up kept jeering at the top ones, and calling them names, and jostling them so much that they could not crawl down again. He also said that the swarm in the air was so dense that he wrote his name in it with his finger and it remained visible for nearly a minute."

"Probably it is difficult for a man to speak the exact truth with his mouth full of (flies)."

The shooting was likewise excellent, and, with the help of Ola, the Norwegian guide, some successful reindeer-stalking was accomplished. The reindeer is almost the only inhabitant of the high mountain regions during the greater part of the year; but during the summer months the cattle are driven to pasture at the "søter" or mountain-farm, accompanied usually by one or two young girls, who remain to take care of them and drive them down again in the fall. The primitive simplicity of the people is well illustrated by the following extract:

"... We pulled up at the door of a large søter. Without knocking, Jens opened the door, and we walked in and struck a light. There was the usual fireplace and table, and in the further corner a bed, which, as we presently perceived, was occupied by two girls. This discovery embarrassed us a little; but no one else, least of all the girls themselves, appeared to be at all disconcerted. . . . The elder one at once got out of bed and proceeded to dress, while her sister remained where she was, and soon fell asleep."

"When the dressing commenced, we, being innocent young bachelors, retired and remained outside till it was finished; but we do not believe she appreciated our delicacy at all."

"Then this poor girl, no doubt very tired after a hard day's work at cheese-making, proceeded to relight the fire, prepare coffee, and broil some venison for us. And just as we finished a hearty meal, Ola and Ivar arrived, so that she had to begin all over again for them. Finally, in spite of our remonstrances, she dragged her sister out of the bed, and insisted on our having it, while they went and slept in another building a few yards away. So John took the bed they had vacated, while Esau made a couch for himself in the cheese-room, and we slept the sleep of the hard-worked, virtuous, penniless wanderer."

"Verily, they have a better idea in Norway of true hospitality than in any other country under the sun."

The rich old farmer of Bjölstad, with his "aquavit," is also a good specimen of Norwegian hospitality; but we must refer those who wish to make his acquaintance to the book itself, which will be found very pleasant summer reading. It has a map of the Jotun fjeld and numerous woodcuts, and its appearance is very attractive.

*The Stolen White Elephant*, etc. By Mark Twain. Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

THIS volume contains most of Mr. Clemens's recent humorous contributions to the magazines, some of which are very well known, such as "Punch Brothers, Punch," "The Facts concerning the Recent Carnival of Crime in Connecticut," "On the Decay in the Art of Lying," "An Encounter with an Interviewer," "The Stolen White Elephant," which gives its

name to the book, is a very elaborate piece of satire at the expense of the detective force of this city. In looking over the volume, the reader is struck with the fact that Mr. Clemens's humor is of such a universal and comprehensive character that it is very difficult to say in what its peculiarity consists. His eminent forerunner, Artemus Ward, had a certain literary cachet which Mr. Clemens lacks. His sketches were sketches of American life and manners, grotesque and absurd as you please, but still having a distinctly national flavor. It is hardly possible to say that Artemus Ward described life as he found it; but there was a definite literary relation between life as he saw it around him and what he wrote which everybody recognized in his books. Mr. Clemens's humor, on the other hand, is American enough; but his inventions, which he uses as a vehicle for it, are of no nationality. There is a kind of monstrosity about them which we remember in no other writer—a wild extravagance which is not simply that of exaggeration. No one but an American humorist would have thought of this termination of "The Recent Carnival of Crime in Connecticut":

"In conclusion, I wish to state, by way of advertisement, that medical colleges desiring assorted tramps for scientific purposes, either by the gross, by cord measurement, or per ton, will do well to examine the lot in my cellar before purchasing elsewhere, as these were all selected and prepared by myself, and can be had at a low rate, because I wish to clear out my stock and get ready for the spring trade."

but there is a wildness about it entirely individual. His "Legend of Sagenfeld," again, is a pleasant bit of humor, no more American than it is German, which might have been written by Hans Andersen, except that Andersen would perhaps not have made the sweepingly libellous statement with which, after explaining how the ass came to be the sacred animal of the kingdom, he adds: "Such is the legend. This explains why the mouldering image of the ass adorns all these old crumbling walls and arches; and it explains why, during many centuries, an ass was always the chief minister in that royal cabinet, just as is still the case in most cabinets to this day; and it also explains why, in that little kingdom, during many centuries, all great poems, all great speeches, all great books, all public solemnities, and all royal proclamations always began with these stirring words: 'Wah . . . he!—wah . . . he!—wah-he!—wah-he!—wah-he!—wah-he!'"

*Essays from "The Critic."* Boston: James R. Osgood & Co. 1882.

THE essays and sketches of which this volume is made up have been reproduced in the form of a book, "in the conviction that some, if not all, of them are, despite their brevity, of permanent literary value," and because some of the earlier numbers of the *Critic* are already out of print. The authors' names are appended to the essays, and comprise John Burroughs, Edmund C. Stedman, Walt Whitman, R. H. Stoddard, F. B. Sanborn, E. W. Gosse, and others. Mr. P. M. Potter's account of Alphonse Daudet will be found of some biographical interest; Mr. Sanborn gives some specimens of Thoreau's unpublished poetry, and J. H. Morse writes on "The Boston Culture." John Burroughs has an essay on "Emerson and the Superlative," in which he insists that, while Emerson was opposed to the superlative in theory, he was himself a "master exaggerator, a lord of extremes, holding the zenith and nadir in his two hands." As if to bring home to the reader what he means by the real Emersonian exaggeration, he adds the following curious qualification of his first statement:

"But, at his best, his superlative runs the other way—runs to excess of truth rather than to excess of form. Without adjective or adverb, he reaches the superlative degree by the sheer projectile force of his verbs and nouns. It is the exaggeration of quality, not of quantity; of essence, not of bulk. His sentences are a steam-chest; the force of expansion is there without the expansion; the gas is held by an iron grip, and made to work. He praises a low style, moderate statement; but there must be a good many pounds' pressure to the square inch in the low style that suits him. The rivet heads must be ready to fly, only they must not fly on any account. Perfect control and moderation, though you are handling thunderbolts."

*The Island of Nantucket: What it Was and What it Is.* With maps of the Town and Island. Compiled by Edward K. Godfrey. Boston: Lee & Shepard. 1882.

THIS is a curious combination of town history, guide book, and advertising medium. The material is well selected for the demands of summer visitors, and is accurate so far as we can judge; but the alphabetical arrangement (bringing in, for example, "Historical Sketches" between "Halls" and "Hotels") is not at all satisfactory. Who would think of the heading "Distinguished Nantucketers" for Lucretia Mott, Maria Mitchell, and Secretary Folger? Most inconsistently, the section "How to Get There," comes at the very beginning, before "Agents," instead of between "Hotels" and "Jail," as, according to the plan, it should. Apart from the absurd arrangement and the advertising part, which is of course of merely ephemeral value, the book is useful and entertaining. The intricate landed system described by us some years ago (see *Nation*, Jan. 10, 1878) will be found set forth here under the head "Commons." The author makes no mention, however, either here or under the head "Agriculture," of the practice, in the last century, of deciding every year, by a vote of the proprietors, which of the sections of land should be cultivated, and with what crop.

*Demosthenes.* By S. H. Butcher, M.A., Fellow and Praelector of University College, Oxford, etc. [Classical Writers. Edited by John Richard Green.] D. Appleton & Co. 1882.

MR. BUTCHER has given, in 172 pages, an admirable sketch of the life and times of Demosthenes, with a classified list of his speeches. There is no author read in a college course who needs a commentary like this more than Demosthenes does; and we should suppose that this volume would come largely into use as a text-book in connection with the works of Demosthenes. The introductory chapter, on "The Age of Demosthenes," contains in a condensed form a useful statement of the condition of things both in Athens and in Greece, as a whole, at the time that the orator appeared: for example, the financial and military organization of the city is clearly described. The volume ends with a few forcible sentences in justification of the policy of the great orator. In view of the decline and death of the Hellenic spirit in the next generation, Mr. Butcher says: "We may still feel grateful to one who, though it was in a losing cause, strove to arrest so sad a decadence."

*A Manual of Sculpture.* Egyptian, Assyrian, Greek, Roman. By George Redford, F.R.C.S. New York: Scribner & Welford. 1882.

THIS is another of those "Illustrated Art Hand-Books" which are so rapidly multiplying to meet the growing demand for superficial information. The subject is here treated under four heads. The first relates to technics, and describes the various materials and processes employed in sculpture. The second part treats of

the aesthetics of the subject, and is not very profitable reading. It contains a good deal of confused talk about the supposed superhuman character of the Greek ideal, and counts among the causes of decline in Greek sculpture the practice of portraiture. Then follows a general outline of the history of ancient sculpture; and finally an explanatory list, arranged alphabetically, is given of the most important existing examples. This last is perhaps the most useful part of the book for those who require such information.

*Ghiberti and Donatello*, with other Early Italian Sculptors. By Leader Scott. New York: Scribner & Welford. 1882.

In this little book of 100 pages the story of early Italian sculptors from Niccolo Pisano to Michelozzo Michelozzi is told in brief outline. The author makes frequent reference to the works of the standard Italian authorities, and to Crowe and Cavalcaselle and to Perkins. The book may be of use as an introduction to more thorough study, especially to travellers in Tuscany, to whom it will afford rather more full, and perhaps more accurate, information than is to be obtained from the ordinary guide-books.

*The Epoch of Reform, 1830-1850*. [Epochs of Modern History.] By Justin McCarthy, M.P. Charles Scribner's Sons.

No better person could have been selected for the last chapters in English history than the author of 'A History of Our Own Time'; and his book, within the limits he has set himself, is acceptable and highly satisfactory. These limits are very narrow—twenty years of English history, and of only one phase of English history at that. We might add that considerably more than half the volume is given to the seven years of the reign of William IV. For the "reform movement" of William's reign, with its sequel in the first few years of Victoria's reign, this is a graphic and interesting sketch; but of the important foreign relations of England during this period we find hardly a word, and—for all his explanation—we cannot but think that the "Reform Epoch" ought at least to begin with the administration of Mr. Canning in 1827, even if we

admit that it ended with the opening of the great series of European events that followed upon the usurpation of Louis Napoleon. It might be urged that the book is already large enough and none too detailed, so that a complete history of England during this period, or even a complete history of Reform from the repeal of the Test and Corporation Acts to the Disestablishment of the Irish Church, would have been impracticable in a volume of this size. But everything depends upon proportion; and if Mr. Seeborn related the history of the Reformation in one of these volumes, and Mr. Gardner that of the Thirty Years' War, surely these peaceful events might be compressed in the same degree.

Good as this book is, therefore, it does not meet the real need that the "Epochs" series ought to satisfy for the nineteenth century. These reforms are probably already the best-known events of the period since the fall of Napoleon; but the great series of events of which, as Mr. McCarthy shows in his first chapter, these formed a part, are very imperfectly known, and very hard to get at. A volume which should begin with the Holy Alliance and the Congress of Vienna, and trace that reaction in every country of Europe of which Mr. Canning's administration was one of the first signs, describing the group of revolutionary events which marked the year 1830, and again that which marked the year 1848, and so on, down to the final triumph of constitutional principles in Austria and other countries of the Continent—such a volume is much needed, and would form an appropriate conclusion to the "Epochs" series. The English Reform movement is only one chapter—perhaps the most important, certainly the one which comes nearest to us—in this greater march of progress. We must add that the volume before us, as is natural, contains no map, being, we believe, the only one of this series which does not; but a more serious want is that of an index. There is neither index nor table of contents; but, instead, a Chronological Table of Contents, which is simply a chronology of the events here described, with references to pages of the book. It is elaborately and well done, but, after all, does not fill the place of an index.

## BOOKS OF THE WEEK.

Annuaire Diplomatique et Consulaire. Supplément à l'Almanach de Gotha. New York: B. Westermann & Co.  
Boisen, H. B. Preparatory Book of German Prose. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. \$1.10.  
Coney Island Souvenir and Guide, 1882. Brooklyn: Linn & Co.  
Gillet, J. A., and Rolfe, W. J. The Heavens Above: a Popular Handbook of Astronomy. Potter, Ainsworth & Co.  
Gooding, W. W. Two Hard Cases: Sketches from a Physician's Portfolio. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. \$1.  
Gower, Lord R. Romney and Lawrence. [Biographies of the Great Artists.] Scribner & Welford.  
Graft, J. F. "Graybeard's" Colorado. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 75 cents.  
Graham, A. J. The Little Teacher of Standard Phonography. A. J. Graham.  
Harrison, J. A. Beowulf. I. Text: Edited from M. Heyne. Boston: Ginn, Heath & Co. 45 cents.  
Heard, F. E. A Concise Treatise on the Principles of Equity Pleading. Boston: Soule & Bugbee.  
Hodgdon, Josephine E. Passages from the Works of William Hickling Prescott. [Leaflets from Standard Authors.] Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. 50 cts.  
Howells, W. D. Their Wedding Journey. Illustrations by Hopkin. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cts.  
Howells, W. D. A Chance Acquaintance. Boston: Houghton, Mifflin & Co. 50 cents.  
Kern, H. G. Mysteries of Godliness. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1.25.  
Littell's Living Age. Fifth Series. Vol. xxxviii. Boston: Littell & Co.  
Luther at Wartburg Castle: A Reformation Story of 1521. Philadelphia: Lutheran Publication Society.  
Martin, F. X. History of Louisiana from the Earliest Period. With Annals from 1815 to 1861. New Orleans: James A. Gresham.  
McDonald, F. V. Notes Preparatory to a Biography of Richard Hayes McDonald, of San Francisco, Cal. Vol. I. Cambridge: University Press.  
McGloin, F. Norodon, King of Cambodia. D. Appleton & Co.  
McNally's System of Geography for Schools, Academies, and Seminars. A. S. Barnes & Co. \$1.50.  
Moon, G. W. The Revisers' English: A Series of Criticisms. Funk & Wagnalls. 75 cents.  
Morgan, H. J. The Dominion Annual Register and Review, 1880-81. Montreal: John Lovell & Son.  
Murray, D. C. A Model Father. Harper's Franklin Square Library. 10 cents.  
Regan, J. Manual of Guard Duty and Kindred Subjects. Harper & Bros.  
Ritter's Geographisch-Statistisches Lexikon. 7th ed. Vol. I, Part I. B. Westermann & Co.  
Samson, G. W. The English Revisers' Greek Text Unauthorized. Cambridge: Moses King. 75 cents.  
Seaside Resorts: Hand-Book for Health and Pleasure Seekers. 25 cents.  
Seeley, J. R. Natural Religion. Boston: Roberts Bros. \$1.25.  
Sharpless, L. and Phillips, G. M. Astronomy for Schools and General Readers. Philadelphia: J. B. Lippincott & Co. \$1.25.  
Shepherd, Mrs. E. R. For Girls: a Special Physiology. Fowler & Wells. \$1.  
Spencer, H. Political Institutions. D. Appleton & Co. \$1.50.  
Spofford, Harriet P. The Marquis of Carabas. Boston: Roberts Bros. \$1.  
Thurston, O. The Adventures of a Virginian. Philadelphia: E. Claxton & Co. 75 cents.  
Turner, D. W. Hints and Remedies for the Treatment of Common Accidents and Diseases. Macmillan & Co. 50 cents.  
Visitors' Guide to Saratoga Springs. Taintor Bros., Merrill & Co. 25 cents.  
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